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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1918, No. 17

HISTORY OF PUBLIC SCHOOL
EDUCATION IN ARIZONA

By STEPHEN B. WEEKS
BUREAU OF EDUCATION



WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1918





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In preparation:

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
CHAPTER I.—The setting for public schools.....	5
Early history; educational efforts by the church.....	5
Statistical view of population growth.....	7
CHAPTER II.—The beginnings of public-school legislation, 1864-1869.....	9
Organization of the Territory.....	9
The Howell code and its educational provisions.....	10
Education in the legislature of 1864.....	10
The school law of 1867.....	13
The school law of 1868.....	14
McCrea on these early efforts.....	16
CHAPTER III.—The administration of Gov. Safford—The State superin- tendency established, 1869-1877.....	18
Gov. Safford's message to the legislature of 1871.....	18
I. The basic act of 1871.....	20
Reports on the act of 1871—Gov. Safford's work.....	22
The situation in 1873.....	24
Wasson's review in 1874.....	26
II. The situation in 1875.....	27
The church and state situation in 1875.....	28
Last years of Safford's administration.....	29
III. Progress up to 1879—Beginnings in the cities.....	30
The development of schools in various centers.....	31
CHAPTER IV.—The superintendent made an independent officer—Adminis- trations of Sherman and Horton, 1879-1885.....	37
I. The act of 1879 and the new development.....	37
II. Sherman becomes the first independent Territorial superintendent.....	40
III. Horton becomes superintendent, 1883-1885.....	45
CHAPTER V.—Organizing the school system, 1885-1887.....	51
I. The school laws of 1885 and 1887.....	52
II. Administration of Supt. Long, 1885-1887.....	55
CHAPTER VI.—Reaction and progress, 1887-1899.....	61
Summary of this period.....	61
Reaction in 1887.....	62
Educational legislation in 1891.....	66
Further fortunes of the schools.....	66
CHAPTER VII.—Further growth and development during the Territorial period, 1889-1912.....	73
I. Second administration of Robert L. Long, 1899-1902.....	74
II. Administration of Nelson G. Layton, 1902-1906.....	76
III. Third administration of Robert L. Long, 1906-1909.....	80
IV. Administration of Kirk T. Moore, 1901-1912.....	85
CHAPTER VIII.—The first State administration of schools.....	88
Public lands provided for the schools.....	88
Supt. Case becomes State superintendent.....	89

	Page.
CHAPTER VIII.—The first State administration of schools—Continued.	
Territorial Industrial School.....	91
School for the deaf, dumb, and blind.....	92
Rural supervision and pensions.....	92
I. The county superintendent.....	95
II. Arizona Teachers' Association.....	96
III. Educational journalism	97
IV. School surveys.....	98
V. City and high schools.....	100
VI. The normal schools.....	108
The Tempe Normal School.....	109
The Flagstaff Normal School.....	111
CHAPTER IX. The school lands.....	116
I. The public school lands.....	117
(a) The Salt River school lands.....	118
(b) Amount and distribution of school lands.....	121
(c) National forest lands.....	122
(d) School lands and Indian reservations.....	123
II. The institutional lands.....	124
III. The land law of 1915.....	126
CHAPTER X.—The past, the present, and the future.....	129
Public school statistics, 1870-1916.....	136
Bibliography	138

HISTORY OF PUBLIC SCHOOL EDUCATION IN ARIZONA.

Chapter I.

THE SETTING FOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The territory of the present State of Arizona is embraced within $31^{\circ} 20'$ and 37° north latitude and between $109^{\circ} 02'$ and $114^{\circ} 45'$ west longitude. It covers an area of 113,956 square miles, of which 146 miles are water surface. The part north of the Gila River came into the possession of the United States under the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in 1848, and that south of the Gila as a part of the Gadsden Purchase of 1854. Arizona was at first included in the Territory of New Mexico, and the census of 1860 gives to Arizona County, N. Mex., a total of 1,681 families, representing 6,482 free individuals.

Efforts made to draw the southern section of New Mexico within the boundaries of the Southern Confederacy were defeated, but perhaps hastened the act of February 24, 1863, under which that part of New Mexico west of 109° was organized as a separate Territory. In December of that year the officers that had been sent out to complete the Territorial organization entered the Territory and established the government with Prescott as its first capital.

For the purpose of this study it is hardly necessary to review the more than 300 years of exploration, including the "exploring entradas from the south and east," that preceded the American occupation. That period can not be characterized as one of settlement or growth. There were a few mission stations in the southern part of the Territory, founded mainly by missionaries who came up from old Mexico and organized religious centers (1687-1828) like San Xavier del Bac, gathered into their fold some of the less savage Indians, and taught them a little of the elements of Christianity and something of secular learning of the more practical kind—farming in particular. Under the influence of the padres the Indians brought large bodies of land into cultivation, sheep and cattle were introduced, comfortable houses were erected, and order and industry to some extent took the place of savagery and sloth.¹

¹ Buehman, Estelle M.: *Old Tucson* (1911), p. 12.

When the Jesuits were expelled in 1767 the Franciscans took their place, but the missions declined and were finally abandoned in 1828 by order of the Mexican Government. The influence of their teachings was largely lost on the Indians as a race; for the converts remained largely pagan at heart, and the amount of secular learning, in the narrowed use of the term, acquired by them may be regarded as an entirely negligible quantity. Further than this the Spanish missionaries came in contact in the main only with the tribes of the south—the Papagoes and Pimas—sedentary, agricultural, and peaceful Indians; but from the time the Territory was first occupied by the United States down to its organization as a separate self-governing Territory and from that time down to 1874 its history was one of more or less continued Indian wars. Even as late as 1886 the menace was not entirely removed, for in that year occurred Geronimo's last outbreak. The country in the northeast was occupied by the brave and warlike Navajoes; the central and southern portions by the savage Apaches—brave, fierce, bloodthirsty, and cruel. For the first generation of its American existence the Arizona *iliad* of Indian horrors was almost unbroken. Indeed during the Civil War period, when the pressure of Confederate arms necessitated the withdrawal of Federal troops, the savage reigned supreme, and the lowest point in civilization since the American occupation was attained.

Prior to the American occupation all the inhabitants of this region were Mexicans and Indians; and all the educational institutions, general in character and purpose, proposed in the past for this country by the Spanish Government had failed of realization.

Thus early as 1777-1789 the founding of a missionary college, perhaps at El Paso, was ordered by the King and the Pope,¹ but nothing was accomplished. About the same time industrial education was proposed as a remedy for the ills of the country, but this, too, came to naught,² and while educational reforms were demanded by Pedro Bautista Pino, the New Mexican representative in the Spanish Cortes of 1812, his efforts were without results.³

The less ambitious educational undertakings at the missions, conducted and controlled by the missionaries who came up from Mexico, were a little more successful, but they were intended for the Indians only, and were later abandoned.

Hamilton, in his *Resources of Arizona*, says:

After the abandonment of the missions, and up to the time of the Gadsden Purchase, there was not a school or educational establishment of any kind within the territory.

¹ Bancroft's *New Mexico and Arizona*, San Francisco, 1888, p. 274.

² *Ibid.*, p. 278.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 289, 304, 307.

There was, however, at least one such school in operation during the earlier years of American dominion, for Gov. Goodwin mentions it in his message to the first assembly in September, 1864. This was the mission of San Xavier del Bac, near Tucson.

McClintock states that a Catholic school was established at Tucson in 1866 under a teacher named Vincent, and that in 1870 the Sisters of St. Joseph organized a girls' school there and erected buildings.¹ Of this school for girls Hamilton says:

The first regular educational establishment was opened by the Sisters of St. Joseph, in Tucson. For years this was the only school in the Territory, and from many isolated towns and settlements parents sent their children to the Academy of St. Joseph. Although the institution was under the control of the Catholic Church, and the instruction given partook somewhat of a religious character, yet no discrimination was shown.²

In view of these conditions, and with the exception of the two schools mentioned above, one of which was for Indians and the other for girls, in matters of education, the men who organized the Territory of Arizona at Navajo Springs in December, 1863, and began laying the foundations for an American public-school system, found among the white settlers of American origin a field practically unoccupied. What, then, was the origin and race of the white settlers and what were the conditions which the advocates of the American public school found in Arizona?

¹ McClintock, James H.: History of Arizona, II, 495.

² Hamilton, Patrick: Resources of Arizona, 3d ed., 1884, pp. 247-48.

There was another St. Joseph's Academy located near the military hospital of Camp Lowell, near Prescott. The building was begun March 19, 1868; finished May 6, 1870; opened June 6, 1870, with 33 pupils; number now in attendance, 210; the building was 120 by 60 feet.—*Arizona Miner*, Nov. 18, 1824.

Statistical view of the growth of Arizona's population, 1860-1910.

Years.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Per cent of increase.	Population per square mile.
1860	16,842
1870	9,581	26	9,658	0.08
1880	35,160	5,280	40,440	319.75	.35
1890	55,734	32,509	88,243	118.20	.77
1900	92,903	30,028	122,931	39.31	1.08
1910	171,468	32,786	204,354	66.23	1.80

¹ For Arizona County, N. Mex., population not differentiated by color, race, or nativity.

² In 1880 this included only the civilized Indians.

³ Includes Negroes, Indians, Chinese, Japanese.

Statistical view of the sources of Arizona's population, 1870-1910.

Born in—	1870	1880	1890	1900	1910
New York.....	481	1,740	1,755	2,324	3,082
Pennsylvania.....	275	814	1,023	1,072	2,818
Ohio.....	235	954	1,234	2,100	3,549
California.....	156	2,177	3,142	5,099	6,101
Missouri.....	121	921	1,781	3,187	5,206
Illinois.....	115	688	1,328	2,659	4,700
Texas.....	114	525	1,285	4,510	10,139
Kentucky.....	107	451	700	1,189	2,168
New Mexico.....	93	1,153	1,274	3,351	4,477
Indiana.....	69	373	661	1,248	2,289
Tennessee.....	63	314	579	1,783	2,578
Arkansas.....	32	328	441	814	1,542
Utah.....	1	1,354	2,836	3,152	2,679
Canada (British America).....	112	571	732	1,827	1,269
Germany.....	379	1,110	2,121	1,247	1,846
Great Britain.....	686	2,312	2,691	3,255	5,836
Mexico.....	4,339	9,330	11,534	14,172	29,987

From these statistics it is evident that the majority of the people who came to settle in Arizona were from States where the public school was already established, and for that reason, since these settlers had already been indoctrinated with the public school idea, little opposition from them was to be expected. This was also clearly the case with the immigrants from Europe and from Canada. Those who might be expected to show indifference were the Mexican immigrants from old and New Mexico, but experience has since proved that this assumption was erroneous. It would appear that otherwise little opposition was to be expected except such as was founded on physical and financial conditions and on the very pertinent difficulty arising out of the scarcity of children. On this phase of the problem McClintock remarks:

Schools were slow in coming to Arizona, probably because of the absence of children other than Mexican. Few of the pioneers brought families into the Territory. It is probable that most of the pioneers simply had an idea, like the first California adventurers, of "making their pile" and going "home." Upon the groundwork they laid, however, was established a more permanent civilization, within which schools were a necessity. The first Territorial legislature passed a school code, but there seems to have been only one school, a small private one in Prescott, and that maintained largely by private subscriptions.¹

¹ McClintock, James H.: *Arizona*, II, 495.

Chapter II.

THE BEGINNING OF PUBLIC-SCHOOL LEGISLATION, 1864-1869.

For the purposes of this study the question of education prior to the time of the organization of Arizona into a separate Territory need not be further considered. This organization was effected under an act passed February 24, 1863, "to provide a temporary government for the Territory of Arizona, and for other purposes." But that was a time of Civil War in the East and of Indian war in the West; and it was not till December 27, 1863, that John N. Goodwin, of Maine, who had been appointed governor, together with the other appointive officers, entered the Territory and formally inaugurated the government at Navajo Springs, 40 miles west of Zuni, on December 29, 1863.¹ The capital was fixed temporarily at Prescott, and the first session of the Territorial legislature met on September 26, 1864.

The new government was not long in proclaiming its adhesion to the great American ideal. Gov. Goodwin uttered the first formal official expression on the subject of public education in his first message to the first session of the first legislature of the Territory when he said:

One of the most interesting and important subjects that will engage your attention is the establishment of a system of common schools.

Self-government and universal education are inseparable. The one can be exercised only as the other is enjoyed. The common school, the high school, and the university should all be established and are worthy of your fostering care. The first duty of the legislators of a free State is to make, as far as lies in their power, education as free to all its citizens as the air they breathe. A system of common schools is the grand foundation upon which the whole superstructure should rest. If that be broad and firm, a symmetrical and elegant temple of learning will be erected. I earnestly recommend that a portion of the funds raised by taxation be appropriated for these purposes and that a beginning, though small, be made.

The act organizing the Territory of New Mexico provides that, when the lands in this Territory shall be surveyed, * * * sections numbered 16 and 36 in each township are reserved for the purpose of being applied to schools. * * * It does not seem to me that any portion of this donation can be made immediately available.

¹ Jour. First Legislative Assembly, Arizona, 1864, p. 13. Navajo Springs is about 40 miles east of the present town of Holbrook, on the Santa Fé Railroad.

To these words, which look to the future, were added others which looked to the past, for the final act which divided church and state was yet to be fought out in Arizona, and the public-school system did not enter on the inheritance of the church in that Territory without a struggle.

Gov. Goodwin continued:

The only school which I have visited in the Territory, though doubtless there are others, is one at the old Mission Church of San Xavier. If any such institution be recognized by an endowment, I suggest that some aid be given to this school. A small donation at this time would materially assist an ancient and most laudable charity of the church to which a large proportion of our people belong, and would encourage it in preserving one of the most beautiful remnants of art on the continent.¹

The first official action of the legislature of the Territory at this session was to authorize the governor to appoint a commissioner to prepare and report on a code of laws as a basis of Territorial government. The bill for this purpose was introduced, considered, and passed by both houses in a single day, and on the same day, October 1, 1864, was signed by Gov. Goodwin, who immediately appointed Hon. William F. Howell, then an associate justice of the supreme court of the Territory, to prepare and report the proposed code. Judge Howell had come into the Territory with the government and had found—

that the laws under which we were required to act were so ill-adapted to our condition that a complete organization of the Territorial government could not be had until a code of laws was substituted for those now in force.

He thereupon undertook in advance the preparation of such a code, and his completed work was presented for the consideration of the legislature on October 3. The proposed code, based on the codes of California and New York, was then considered and discussed by the legislature; it was finally adopted as a whole as proposed by Judge Howell, went into effect at once, and became the basis for the legislative work of Arizona.

As adopted by the legislature of 1864, chapter 23 of the Howell code treats "Of Education." It was divided into four parts and provided for (1) a Territorial university; (2) a common-school system; (3) a Territorial library; and (4) an historical department.

The Howell code may be regarded as a sort of constitutional outline under and in accord with which future legislation was to be developed. It was not in itself a school code, but it outlined the direction such a code when enacted should take. It proposed, first of all, a higher institution "for the purpose of educating youth in the various branches of literature, science, and arts" to be known as

¹ Governor's message, Sept. 30, 1864, in *Jour. First Legislative Assembly, Arizona*, pp. 39-40.

the University of Arizona. The university was to be under a board of seven regents made up of the governor, the judges of the supreme court, and three other members chosen by the legislature. The main support of the institution was to be derived from the lands granted to the territory for that purpose. The university, when organized, was to consist of (1) a department of literature, science, and the arts; (2) a department of natural history, including a history of the Territory; and (3) such other departments to be added as the regents should deem necessary and the university funds allow. The regents were directed to select a site for the university before January 1, 1866. In the meantime, university moneys accruing were to be kept in the hands of the State treasurer.

Under this law nothing was accomplished toward the organization of the proposed university. As McCrea has pertinently said, for the next 10 years the best energies of the people were to be devoted to a desolating Indian war; and the University of Arizona, the dream of this Michigan jurist and of his friend, the governor, was forgotten for a generation in the fierce struggle to hold the land for civilization.¹

In the matter of common schools it was provided that—

as soon as there shall have accumulated sufficient funds and a necessity therefor exists the legislature shall provide for a system of common-school education at the public expense and may at any time authorize a tax to be levied by school districts for the support of schools until such system of common-school education shall be established.

The proceeds of lands granted by Congress for this purpose, appropriations made by the Territory, and the proceeds of gifts, grants, and donations "shall be and remain a perpetual fund, the interest, rents, and proceeds thereof to be inviolably applied to the object of the original grant or gift, and to no other use or purpose whatsoever"; and until such system was established by law all moneys were to accumulate and remain in the Territorial treasury as a distinct fund, to be known as the common-school fund.²

The remaining phases of the Howell code were supplementary to the above. They provided for the establishment of a Territorial library supported by moneys out of the Territorial treasury and in charge of a Territorial librarian. And in addition to the above it was provided that—

¹ McCrea, Samuel Pressly: Establishment of the Arizona School System, in Report Supt. Public Instruction, 1907-8, p. 79 et seq. Mr. McCrea was educated at Muskingum College and at the Indiana State Normal School. He has taught in various sections of the Territory and was in 1897-98 principal of the Tucson public schools.

² On the income from Territorial lands McCrea remarks (p. 78): "As was true elsewhere, the Arizona legislators had an exaggerated idea of the amount of income likely to arise from the grants of land made by Congress for education. Until 1898 Arizona derived no income from the school lands within her borders, and then and since only a small amount from leasing sections 16 and 36 in the farming regions of the Territory."

there shall be established and connected with the Territorial library an historical department, the object of which shall be to collect, preserve, and publish the natural and political history of the Territory. For this purpose the librarian shall procure, as far as possible, all writings, histories, letters, lectures, essays, maps, charts, and books relating to said Territory and its history, and carefully preserve the same. In like manner he shall procure specimens of geology, mineralogy, and botany found or produced within the Territory.

The librarian was to collect also all newspapers, pamphlets, books, and magazines published in the Territory and to print from time to time selections from his manuscript papers. An assistant librarian might be appointed to superintend this division, but after the university was established it was to be transferred to the historical department of the university.

After passing the Howell code the legislature turned its attention to the consideration of the question of the establishment of a public educational system. This was decided against:¹

The joint committee on education report that after a mature consideration they have decided that it would be premature to establish or to attempt any regular system of common or district schools. At present the Territory is too sparsely settled, and the necessary officers for such an establishment would be more costly than the education of the children would warrant.

The committee did provide, however, that a gift of \$250 be paid to the person "in pastoral charge" of the mission school at San Xavier del Bac, "for purchase of books of instruction, stationery, and furniture." The pupils in this school were Mexicans and Papago Indians; it was characterized as the first school opened in American Arizona, and the grant was without limitations, but grants of similar amounts to Prescott, LaPaz, and Mohave were declared to be "for benefit of a public school"; and it was further provided that "said appropriations shall be void and of no effect unless said towns by taxation, appropriation, or individual enterprise, furnish an equal sum for the aid of such school."

It was reported that there had been three primary schools in Tucson "during part of last year," and to this town was given \$500 with the general requirement that the town raise a similar amount and an additional proviso that "the English language forms a part of the instruction of such school."

The public moneys appropriated were to be placed in the hands of the board of county commissioners, to be paid over by them when the schools had complied with the terms of the act. County and judicial district treasurers were also required to pay over to the county commissioners for the benefit of the public schools "all moneys in their hands that may have accrued from town licenses, and not otherwise appropriated."

¹ See report of joint committee in Jours. First Legislative Assembly, 1864, pp. 176-77.

It was further ordered that the county commissioners "shall be trustees of public schools and may appoint a suitable person to examine the course of instruction, discipline, and attendance of said schools, and the qualifications of the teachers, and report the same to them at their stated general meeting"; neither commissioners nor inspectors were to receive any pay for their work.¹

From these statements it will be noted that the church school was devoted to the instruction of Mexican and Indian children, and that some of such private schools as existed were not taught in English.

To meet the requirements of these appropriations the sum of \$1,500 was voted,² but it does not appear that the conditions of the grants were complied with by the towns or that the money made available was used, for in his message to the legislature of 1867 Gov. R. C. McCormick says:

If I am correctly informed, none of the towns have complied with this requirement, and the funds of the Territory have not been used. The sums, however, are insufficient to be of more than a temporary benefit, and sufficient funds have not yet accumulated.³

By 1865 interest in the schools had begun to wane. Although practically nothing had been done, Gov. McCormick then thought that "the existing provisions for schools" in the various parts of the Territory were sufficient;⁴ and, as usual, like governor, like legislature, no bill looking to the advancement of education was passed or even considered. Nor was anything done educationally in 1866. In 1867 Gov. McCormick had concluded that "in the opinion of many of the people the time has come for some definite and liberal provision for the establishment and maintenance of public schools in the Territory," and an act on schools was passed in October, 1867.⁵

The law of 1867 provided that the county board of supervisors⁶ should have power to establish school districts. Any settlement with a resident population of 100 persons might be set apart as a school district, and any number of legal voters might make application for a school in such district. The board of supervisors were then to levy a tax of not more than 5 mills on the assessed value of all taxable property within the limits of the district "as shown by the

¹ Approved Nov. 7, 1864.

² Act of Nov. 10, 1864.

³ Jours. of Fourth Legislative Assembly, 1867, p. 42. In his message to the assembly of 1865 (Jours., 1865, p. 47) Gov. McCormick had said that Prescott had availed itself of the opportunity and that "a school has been well sustained during part of the year."

⁴ Message in Jour., 1865, p. 47.

⁵ The first bills to establish schools in Arizona were introduced by Hon. Solomon W. Chambers, of Tubac, and Hon. John B. Allen, later a resident of the same place. The Chambers bill was defeated, and the Allen bill became the law of 1867. See Historical Sketch of Public Schools of Arizona in Report Tucson Public Schools, 1893-94, p. 25.

⁶ These are presumably the same officers as those called county commissioners in the act of 1864.

last assessment roll of the county assessor." This tax was to be collected by the county tax collector and paid into the county treasury. The supervisors were to determine the site of the schools, purchase, build, or hire rooms suitable for school purposes, "furnish the same with proper desks, tables, books, and seats, and shall, from time to time, hire competent teachers for such schools, for such periods as the funds on hand may allow."

It does not appear that much was accomplished under this law, for then, as later, many communities in Arizona could not qualify in population requirements. It is probable, however, that the framers of the act of 1867 had in mind the organization of schools in the towns and cities, and if the law had been faithfully carried out public schools might have been organized in the four county seats and in one or two of the larger mining camps.¹ Nothing seems to have been done, for the United States Bureau of Education said in its report for 1870 that it was unable to ascertain "whether any schools have gone into operation under this law."²

Gov. McCormick had nothing to say on the subject in his message to the fifth assembly (1868), but nevertheless on the 16th of December, 1868, the legislature tried its hand on a more detailed school law than had been hitherto attempted.³

This law had in view an elaboration of the act of 1867. It provided that the county board of supervisors should be constituted a county board of education and have under its authority all matters pertaining to education. The board was to recommend legislation, alterations, and amendments and make annual reports. They were to select and adopt the textbooks to be used and divide counties into school districts of not less than 20 children.

The counties were to choose at their annual election a county superintendent of public schools, who was to make an annual report and have charge of the public-school interests of the county. He was to apportion the school fund in proportion to the number of school children living in each district between 4 and 21 years of age, visit the schools, examine into their progress, and advise with the teachers. He was to hold at stated times public examinations for all persons offering as teachers and grant certificates for not more than one year to such as were qualified to teach orthography, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and English grammar.

The voters in a school district meeting had authority to vote such tax as necessary to furnish the schoolhouse with blackboards, outline

¹ McCrea, in Long's Report, 1908, p. 81.

² Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1870, p. 318.

³ See Compiled Laws of Arizona, 1871, pp. 213-223; also session laws, 1868, known as the Chambers bill because introduced by Hon. Solomon W. Chambers, who had introduced a bill in 1867 of which this was an elaboration. See Historical Sketch of the Public Schools of Arizona in Report Tucson Public Schools, 1893-94, p. 25.

maps, and apparatus, provided this tax did not exceed one-fourth of 1 per cent per annum. A district school board consisting of a director, clerk, and treasurer was to be elected, and the school district when thus organized was given corporate powers. The voters were to decide also how long the schools should be kept open and whether they should be taught by a man or woman or by both, and whether the school money should be applied to the summer or winter term. The district board had general charge of the schools, and its clerk was to make an annual report.

It was provided that the district tax should not exceed $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent per annum, but the county board might levy an additional one-fifth of 1 per cent on all the taxable property in each county for the support of public schools in the county. The funds raised in the county by taxation or coming from the legislature or other sources were to be known as the common school fund, and were to be used for no other purpose; taxes for schools were to be "assessed on the same kind of property as taxes for county purposes are assessed." They were also collected by the same officers and in the same way as other county taxes.

In neither of these acts was there any provision for Territorial oversight. There was, however, something of a county organization, with a county superintendent; a county tax; a district organization with required and special taxes. A part of the machinery for schools was being evolved, but the acts of 1867 and 1868 provided for local taxes only for schools, and this phase of taxation has not even yet attained full success within the State; further, the school officers—most of them *ex officio*—were to receive nothing for the performance of these new duties, and there was always the unsolved problem of distances. It is to be presumed that school organization would begin with the towns, and although Gov. McCormick complimented the legislature and himself by saying that they had laid "the foundations of a thorough system of common schools, an act in itself sufficient to make your meeting memorable," there is little or no record to show that anything was done. As McCrea has suggested (p. 82), what the Territory needed was an educational leader, and founding schools was not Gov. McCormick's forte.

In justice to the officers of the Government and other leaders, it must be remembered also that in 1870 there were reported but 9,581 persons living in a territory that covered more than 113,000 square miles, or if they had been evenly distributed only about one person to every 12 square miles of territory; that in addition much of this was barren desert infested by the infernal Apaches, perhaps the most cruel and devilish of all American Indians.

As a matter of fact, however, the conditions were much better than the above would indicate. The few families living here and there on individual ranches may be ignored educationally, for they were lucky if they escaped with their lives. But most of the settlers lived in small towns or villages, in communities that were convenient to farming or mining operations, and with them the beginnings of a public-school system were possible. As McCrea points out, in several of the mining camps there were enough Mexican children to start a school, but there were no buildings, books, or teachers. Half the population spoke no English; few of the children had ever seen a school; and while the more intelligent of both races were anxious for schools, the great mass of the people were not only indifferent, but sometimes even hostile.¹

Perhaps what these people needed most was educational leadership. This they did not have. Gov. Goodwin went out of office after one year; Gov. McCormick was more interested in exploiting the natural resources; and it was not until the time of Gov. Safford that the schools might feel that their educational Moses had arisen.

Of the law of 1868, of the work of Gov. McCormick, and of the schools and school prospects in general, McCrea says:

The administration of the new school law rested on the slow-moving boards of supervisors, and on a county superintendent of schools elected by the people, but whose compensation was in the supervisors' hands. The schools were to be supported entirely by local taxes, which were limited in amount, and must be raised by the people of the respective districts. I do not know whence this school law was obtained, but it was entirely unsuited to a people who had no training in local self-government. The people of Arizona have not even yet learned the valuable lesson of partially supporting their schools by local taxes, and rarely levy special taxes upon districts except to meet the expense of erecting new school buildings.

While there was enough authority in the law to provide schools, there was as yet nothing to create a strong desire for them. Gov. McCormick had done much to advance the material interests of the Territory, but founding schools was not his forte. What the people most needed was an educational leader, and he was soon to be supplied. * * * The Federal Census of 1870 supplies the background of the seemingly hopeless picture. The large foreign element, mainly Mexican, would lead us to expect a startling illiteracy. Few children attended any kind of school. The professions were hardly represented at all. The Territory had but one newspaper—The Arizona Miner—at Prescott, with a circulation of 280 copies; though a second paper, the Arizona Citizen, was founded at Tucson that year. No Protestant Church had yet been founded, though there had been some missionary effort. The Catholic Church was strong, and was soon able to begin founding parochial schools and convents. The situation from an educational standpoint was bad enough. The only redeeming feature was the fact that the Territory had no debt, and the counties but a slight one. Some property had been accumulated by the limited popu-

¹ McCrea, report, 1908, pp. 81-82.

lation in the face of a constant struggle with the worst Indians on the continent. But a brighter day was about to dawn for Arizona.

The first period of effort had now passed without tangible results. In his summary for the period McCrea remarks:

In the first period 1864-1869 the people of the Territory were engaged in a fierce struggle for the possession of the land. The great mineral wealth of the Territory was becoming known, though other occupations than mining and freighting were developed slowly and under great difficulties. Neither life nor property was safe. While such industrial conditions continued, stability and thrift were largely lacking in the population, and the necessity of educating their children appealed to them but slightly. The chief men of the Territory wanted to see those institutions founded which would help to make the possession of the Territory secure, and which would aid in attracting to it a more intelligent and stable population.¹

¹ McCrea, loc. cit., p. 74.

Chapter III.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF GOV. SAFFORD—THE STATE SUPERINTENDENCY ESTABLISHED, 1869—1879.

The law of 1868 brought to a close what may be called the first period of public education in Arizona. Little was accomplished during that period. The school system was not organized and had not yet found its leader.

This leader came in the person of Anson P. K. Safford, who on April 7, 1869, was appointed third governor of the Territory. Gov. Safford had been a member of the California House of Representatives, had been surveyor general of Nevada, and is said to have been unusually well equipped for his new position. He was governor for nearly eight years—the longest term during which any one man has as yet held the office. He is believed to have influenced the history of the Territory far more than any other executive, and was more generally supported in his efforts for the public good. Owing in part to more favorable conditions, he was also more successful than his predecessors in advancing the material interests of the Territory, but his fame as an able administrator rests mainly on his successful efforts to solve the educational problem of Arizona.

It should not be understood, however, that Gov. Safford's task in convincing the members of the legislature of the correctness of his educational views was an easy matter, or that the vigorous, self-contained, and self-reliant men who made up that frontier legislature were won except by the strongest and soundest arguments, as the following pages will show.

His message to the legislature of 1871, the first which met during his administration, is in part an eloquent oration on the importance and necessity of education. When we consider the character of the country, the scarcity of population, the savage Apache, and the lack of all facilities for education, the sublime faith and devotion of Gov. Safford really earned the reward which posterity has recognized as being his due, and which they have in part repaid by calling one of the towns of the upper Gila Valley, in Graham County, in his honor.

Fortunately for the historian, Gov. Safford has himself told in glowing periods of this educational development; and his review, when supplemented and reenforced by his messages, presents a story well worthy of being retold for the sake of those who face difficulties less severe than those faced by Gov. Safford in 1871.

In his report to the Commissioner of Education in 1876, Gov. Safford said:¹

Upon assuming the duties of the office of governor in the year 1869 I found that several previous legislatures had enacted school laws, but in none had any positive provisions been made to sustain public schools, it having been left optional with school-board trustees and county boards of supervisors to levy a school tax or not. The result was that no means were provided and no schools were organized. I saw clearly that the first and most important measure to adopt was to provide the means by making the tax compulsory and as certain as the revenue for carrying on the machinery of government. I at once, after assuming the duties of my office, began to agitate the subject. The first legislature convened in 1871. I prepared a school bill and presented it to the members as soon as they assembled.

Gov. Safford emphasized and made clear to the legislature his position when he said in his message:

Next in importance to the Indian question, none will claim your attention over that of devising some plan for the education of the youth of our Territory. The recent census returns show a population of children, under the age of 21 and over 6 years, of 1,923, and the mortifying fact has to be admitted that we have not a public school in the Territory. There is, and has been for some time, a school in Prescott under the management of S. C. Rogers, and much credit is due that gentleman for his zeal and efforts to encourage education. The Sisters of St. Joseph have recently established a school in Tucson for the education of females, and too much praise can not be accorded them for leaving home and its surrounding comforts and coming to this remote Territory to promote education. With limited means and in a strange land they have overcome every obstacle, and in a few months established a school creditable to any country, and which is already attended by about 130 pupils.

But the object most desirable to attain is the adoption of a school system for free public schools, so that the poor and rich alike can share equal benefits. In a country like ours, where the power to govern is derived from the consent of the governed, it becomes a matter of vital importance and necessity, if we are to protect and make permanent our republican institutions, that the people shall be educated. Not only this, but history records the fact that the power and glory of nations and peoples keep pace only with their enlightenment and intelligence. * * *

I am of the opinion that our Government should adopt a system of free schools for the whole people, and that, as soon as it were put in operation, it should by law compel the attendance of every child of sound mind and proper age throughout the length and breadth of the Republic. * * *

I consider it imperatively necessary that we shall do something for ourselves.

The present school law has been found inadequate to accomplish the desired object; in fact, it has been wholly inoperative. To obtain the means to put a free school system in operation I would recommend that a portion of the Territorial revenues be set apart for school purposes, and that this fund be divided between the several counties of the Territory in proportion to the number of children that attend school. The boards of supervisors of the several counties should be compelled to divide the counties into one or more school districts, and levy a tax upon all the property of the county to raise a sufficient fund, with the money derived from the Territory, to maintain, for a term of

¹ Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1876, pp. 431-433.

at least six months each year, one or more free schools in each of the counties. This will undoubtedly, to a small extent, increase taxation; but I hardly believe there is a property owner who would not prefer to pay an increased tax than see the rising generation grow up in ignorance; and the small extra tax that is required to maintain free schools will very soon be doubly repaid in the saving of expenses in criminal prosecutions.¹

The school bill was introduced by the Hon. Estevan Ochoa, probably the most prominent Mexican of that day in Arizona. He was generally respected and had great personal influence, and the spectacle of a citizen of that race presenting an educational measure in an American assembly ought to have spurred his neighbors to action; but somehow it did not, and the bill received but a half-hearted support.²

Gov. Safford himself tells how his message and bill were received by the legislature:³

Scarcely a member looked upon it with favor. They argued that the Apaches were overrunning the country; that through murder and robbery the people were in poverty and distress; that repeated attempts had been made to organize schools and that failure had always ensued. To these objections I replied that the American people could and ultimately would subdue the Apaches; that unless we educated the rising generation we should raise up a population no more capable of self-government than the Apaches themselves; and that the failure to establish schools had been the result of imperfect statutes during the entire session.

Finally, on the last day of the session, they passed the bill, after striking out nearly all the revenue which had been provided. The measure was the best that could be secured and had to be accepted as it was.

I. THE BASIC ACT OF 1871.

But even then the act of February 18, 1871, was a long step on the road leading to complete school organization. It was the first law that provided for a general or Territorial tax for the support of schools, and it has served as the basic law for subsequent educational enactments.⁴ To begin with, it levied a general Territorial tax of 10 cents on the \$100 of property and directed that this be collected and paid into the Territorial treasury "as a special fund for school purposes." It was provided also that it be levied and

¹ See Jours. Legislative Assembly, 1871, pp. 43-45.

² The Historical Sketch of the Arizona Public Schools, printed in the Report of Tucson Public Schools for 1893-94, p. 25 et seq., says that this bill was introduced by Hon. H. S. Stevens, of Pima County. The apparent contradiction can probably be explained by referring one introduction to one house and one to the other. See McCrea, loc. cit., p. 84.

³ See Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1876, p. 432. The bill was passed Feb. 18, 1871.

⁴ McCrea points out that the Arizona school law of 1871 "was evidently taken from the Revised School Laws of California (1866), as the general plan for the proposed system was the same as that of California, while many of the provisions were couched in the same language." The sketch in the Tucson school report for 1893-94 makes the same statement.

collected "at the same time and in the same manner as other Territorial revenues," thus placing school taxes on the same level as other taxes. They were not relegated to a different category, put on a different footing, and the power given to every disgruntled voter to say whether there should be taxes at all, and if so, how much, and how they should be collected, as was done in some of the States. In other words, the schools were recognized as one of the necessary requirements of modern government, to be provided for just as the police department or the executive officers. We may accurately say, then, that while Arizona did not escape the almost universal struggle which has been waged at one time or another by one interest or another against the public-school system, there has never been a day since the organization of the Territory when the public-school idea did not stand out boldly and distinctly as a function of the modern State.

The law of 1871 ordered that the county board of supervisors should levy a county school tax not to exceed 50 cents per hundred, to be collected as other taxes, and it provided further for the enforcement of this action if the county authorities fail to act.

A Territorial board of education was created, consisting of the Territorial secretary, the superintendent of public instruction, and the Territorial treasurer. Since the governor was made ex officio Territorial superintendent, and the Territorial treasurer was one of his appointees, it is evident that he controlled the situation, and that the schools would fare well or ill according to his own individual enthusiasm for education. The board was to hold at least two meetings per year "for the purpose of devising plans for the improvement and management of the public-school funds and for the better organization of the public schools of the Territory. The governor was made ex officio superintendent of public instruction, but with no increase in salary for these extra duties. He was given, however, \$500 for expenses."¹ His duties were to apportion funds between the pupils 6 to 21; make an annual report; prescribe forms; prepare a school register; visit each county every year; and make estimates of future expenditures on which was to be based the county school tax. All school moneys, both county and Territorial, were to be regarded as special funds and were to be used for school purposes only.

The probate judge of the county was made ex officio county school superintendent, but with no extra pay,² except \$100 for traveling expenses. He was to apportion the county school money among the

¹ This item appears again and again in the official records of the Territory as if it were a real salary paid to the superintendent instead of a mere extra allowance to the governor to meet extra expenses when acting in his capacity as Territorial superintendent.

² By the act of Feb. 13, 1871, the salary of the probate judges was fixed at \$300 per annum.

school districts in proportion to children 6 to 21, provided the schools had been kept open for three months;¹ he was to visit the schools; distribute blanks; and make reports. In case he failed to make reports he was to be fined.

In each school district a board of three public-school trustees was to be elected, in whose hands, when organized, was placed the direct management of the schools and the granting of teaching certificates. They were to take the school census every year; were to provide and furnish schoolhouses; and when Territorial and county money was not sufficient to keep the schools open "for at least three months in each year" they might levy a district tax sufficient to make up the shortage; by a two-thirds vote also the district might levy a further tax to extend the term beyond three months and to erect schoolhouses. New school districts might be set off on petition of 10 families. A uniform series of textbooks was adopted, and indigent pupils might be supplied, but the books were not otherwise furnished free. The subjects taught in the schools covered spelling, reading, grammar, arithmetic, geography, physiology, "and such other studies as may be by said board deemed necessary."

This law furnished the Territory for the first time a complete system—a Territorial center in the Territorial board and superintendent; county organization and supervision; district or local supervision, with a tax levied by each of the three divisions and all contributing to the support of the system. Its vital weakness was that all the supervision was to be done by *ex officio*, who, engaged in other lines of administrative work, had often little time and possibly less inclination to see the duties of school administration carried out. The acme of this folly is seen in the section which ordered the probate judges to make certain school reports and fined them for failure, but did not pay them for performance.²

Under date of November 3, 1871 (the law was passed Feb. 18, 1871), Gov. Safford writes to the United States Bureau of Education that "every effort has been made to place a free school system in operation with as little expense as possible. It is now confidently expected that by January 1, 1872, a free school will be established

¹The *Weekly Miner* (Prescott) complains in its issues of Nov. 25 and Dec. 2, 1871, that the school law was defective. It said the school system, when once under way, might go on indefinitely, but there was no way to start it, for the law provided that no school should have any public money unless it had had a school for three months in the previous year, or before the first distribution. The trustees must conduct the school for three months at their own expense or ignore sec. 33 of the law. It urged that it would be only by utmost and immediate attention that they could hope to establish a school by Jan. 1, 1872. They seem to have risen to the occasion, however, for on Jan. 2 the *Miner* announces that the board was to lease a building and open a school as soon as the textbooks ordered from San Francisco arrived.

²The act of 1873 allowed the probate judges \$100 per year for their services. See *Sess. Acts, 1873, sec. 15, p. 66.*

in every school district of the Territory."¹ At this time also Gov. Safford further urged that Congress allow the Territory to sell some of the lands which were to be donated to it for schools when it became a State.

Later Gov. Safford gave some further account of the workings of the act of 1871.² He then said:

As soon as the legislature [of 1871] adjourned every part of the Territory was visited, and appeals to aid in establishing schools under the law, which constituted the governor ex officio superintendent, were everywhere made. A desire for schools soon began to appear among the people. We had no books nor teachers; all had to be procured in the older States. In the course of the following year, several schools were in successful operation.

In his report for 1872 he grew enthusiastic:

A free school has been put in operation during the present year in every school district where there was a sufficient number of children, and has been or will be in all cases continued three months, in most of the districts six months, and in some nine months. The board of supervisors should be compelled to levy a uniform tax for school purposes in every county. The trust is too sacred to leave to the discretion of three men. Before the free-school system was inaugurated in this Territory many doubted its practicability, and but few believed it could be made a success, but now all, with one accord, are pleased with it, and I think but little difficulty will be met in continuing and perfecting the system. The larger part of the children are of Mexican birth, and but few of them can speak the English language. They have been taught altogether in English, and their progress has been all that could be desired.³

It may be of interest to summarize at this point what Prof. McCrea has to say on the results of this law. His opinion is of the more value because he was for years a part of the movement of which he wrote.

In his opinion, and in this view he is doubtless correct, the school law of 1871 was the basic law of the subsequent Territorial educational development. He has given with great clearness the steps which followed looking to the organization of schools:

Immediately upon the adjournment of the assembly the governor [Safford] entered upon a wonderful educational crusade. Notwithstanding the inadequate means of travel, the widely scattered population, and the hostile Apaches,

¹ Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1871, p. 377. In June, 1871, John B. Allen, Territorial treasurer, reported that he had \$519.92 to be divided among the counties (Weekly Miner, June 15, 1872). Money was apportioned Dec. 31, 1871, as follows:

Pima County	503 children	\$695.23
Yuma County	364 children	419.66
Maricopa County	94 children	108.38
Yavapai County	211 children	243.28
Total		1,466.55

The Weekly Miner of Jan. 2, 1872, in commenting on these figures, claims that Pima had too much and the others too little. It was reported in the Miner on July 1, 1871, that Yavapai had a county school rate of 10 cents and a Territorial rate of 10 cents.

² Rept. of U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1876, p. 432.

³ Ibid., 1872, p. 365.

every part of the Territory was visited, and every effort was made to encourage the people to organize public schools under the new law. A desire for schools began to appear among the people, and under the able leadership of this masterful man the good work was at last begun. There were no teachers and no school books, except the few brought in by the governor some months before. All had to be procured in the older States.¹ In his labors he was ably seconded by the probate judges of the respective counties whom he had named to assist him in this important work.

As Gov. Safford pointed out, when the legislature of 1873 assembled, the school sentiment had grown so strong that members came generally fully instructed to strengthen the system to the extent of their power. But, on the other hand, McCrear has shown in his study that, while the legislature was willing to do a great deal for the schools, they wanted to do it in their own way and had not yet learned that the governor knew the needs of the schools far better than they could know them.²

It was clearly the purpose of the governor to see to it that no failure could be rightly charged to him. In his message to the legislature, in 1873, he says:

It is a source of pride and satisfaction to me, with all the obstacles, that so good a commencement has been made. Free schools have been taught, during the past year, in every school district in the Territory for at least three months. The advancement by the pupils has been extraordinary, and the sentiment of the people has become interested and cemented into a determination to make almost any sacrifices to educate the rising generation. No officer interested with putting the school law into operation has yet received any compensation for his services; so that every dollar raised for school purposes has been applied to furnishing schoolrooms, the purchase of books, and payment of teachers. In many instances the establishment of schools was delayed for the want of books and teachers; and the almost entire lack of schoolhouses has been a serious embarrassment.

Since there remained a surplus of more than \$17,000 in the Territorial treasury after paying all debts, the governor suggested that \$5,000 be divided among the counties for the erection and improvement of schoolhouses, provided that the districts raised twice the sum for the same purpose. This wise proposal was rejected. He suggested also that \$5,000 be transferred from the general to the school fund to be distributed to the counties under the law. This sum was so appropriated, but was ordered to be divided equally among the counties,³ as was a further sum of \$1,500 which was appropriated "for the benefit of the public schools,"⁴ except that the share assigned

¹ Iverson, Blakeman & Co., of New York, donated in 1872 several thousand school books to the Territory, while A. L. Bancroft & Co. secured the contract to furnish school books up to 1879. See Tucson Public School Report, 1893-94, p. 26.

² Arizona Report, 1908, p. 87.

³ Sess. Laws, 1873, pp. 93, 94.

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 25, 26.

by this act to Pima County was ordered to be paid to the Sisters of St. Joseph in Tucson.¹

The school law of 1871 had provided that the county school tax should be "not to exceed" 50 cents on the hundred, but experience led Gov. Safford in 1873 to recommend a uniform tax rate in all the counties for school purposes. He then inaugurated also the movement looking toward compulsory attendance. The legislature of 1874, for its part, while doing some things that were of service, did others that were reactionary. With the new and excellent provisions for a Territorial school tax of 25 cents on each \$100 of valuation and a uniform county school tax of the same amount,² was linked the repeal of all sections of the law apportioning school money according to attendance, and thus the one powerful incentive for building up attendance was removed.³

The county probate judges as ex officio county school superintendents were also relieved from the requirement to visit the schools, but the \$100 given under the act of 1871 for expenses was retained as salary.⁴ Of this phase of educational development McCrea remarks:⁵

With this amendment begins the agitation of the probate judges to secure legislation to increase their emoluments for work as school superintendents without increasing their duties to any corresponding extent. These officers were also most unwisely given the authority to select textbooks for their respective counties.⁶

Gov. Safford says that the schools flourished from 1873 to 1875 "to the entire satisfaction of all interested." Statistics in somewhat detailed form are given by him in his reports to the Commissioner of Education, and they show for the most part a steady development and a growth that promised well for the future. It was believed that there would be revenue enough to maintain free schools in each of the districts for six months in the year, and under date of August

¹ The act provided that this grant was to be made in case that "Territorial warrant No. 383, drawn on the 17th day of October, 1872, for \$300, in favor of the 'Sisters of St. Joseph,' shall be first surrendered and canceled without payment." See acts of 1873, pp. 25, 26. An act of Feb. 18, 1871, had appropriated \$300 to the Sisters of St. Joseph "who are teaching and maintaining a school for the education of young ladies, in the town of Tucson, to enable them to pay for the school books now in use in said school." The appropriation under the act of 1871 had not been paid by the Territorial treasurer because he believed it illegal. (Jours. Legislative Assembly, 1873, p. 88.) The effort was then made by the law of 1873 to charge this gift up to the school fund of Pima County, but it again failed, for the act of 1875 (Sess. Laws, 1875, p. 91) ordered that it be paid out of the general fund.

² Sess. Laws, 1873, pp. 64-66, secs. 1 and 2.

³ Sess. Laws, 1873, pars. 6 and 16, pp. 65, 66. See also McCrea in Superintendent's Report, 1908, p. 87. Girls seem to have been admitted to the Tucson schools now for the first time. See McCrea, op. cit., p. 89.

⁴ Sess. Laws, 1873, par. 15, p. 66.

⁵ Arizona Report for 1908, p. 88.

⁶ Sess. Laws, 1873, par. 31, p. 66.

30, 1873, he wrote that arrangements had been made to open a free school in every district in the following October. He urged the necessity of keeping all religious instruction out of the schools and concluded by saying:

After four years' incessant labor I have succeeded in obtaining means, books, and teachers for excellent schools, so that every child within the Territory may obtain an education. While I remain in office our free schools will be kept open, and I shall endeavor at the next session of the legislature to make education compulsory.

Again he says:

Without books, schoolhouses, or teachers to commence with, in less than two years the free-school system has been fairly and successfully put in operation throughout the Territory.

McCrea has given some additional information on the difficulties encountered which is worthy of quotation here:¹

In the various communications made by Gov. Safford to the Commissioner of Education during 1873 we learn something of the difficulties under which he labored, the patience and persistence he displayed, and the wonderful success which began to reward his efforts. The work undertaken was enough to daunt anyone not possessed of a heroic soul. The Territorial census of 1872 showed a population of but 10,743, and these were scattered over a rough and barren country about as large as New York and all New England. Most of the people spoke an alien language to which they were much attached. There were few opportunities for profitable employment. Supplies must be brought a thousand miles from California and were very costly. The effort to subdue a wilderness such as they lived in was enough for any people, without being subjected to the barbarity of the unspeakable Apaches. With so many varied duties pressing upon him, it is remarkable that the governor could find time to devote to educational improvement, and yet he became familiar with all the details of the work.

Fortunately there is a contemporary witness who has given his testimony to the same effect. John Wasson, surveyor general, said in his newspaper, the *Arizona Citizen*, on May 14, 1874:

Less than two years ago the free-school system was started in Arizona, without schoolhouses, books, or teachers. It seemed a forlorn hope for the poor Apache-ridden people to provide for the education of the children under such adverse conditions, but the same undaunted spirit that had faced death and torture through a long series of years said, "We must either have schools or more jails, and we prefer the former"; and the result shows that people can do if they will. Yuma has a good schoolhouse, neatly furnished, and one will soon be erected at Ehrenberg. We are assured that Mohave County will erect schoolhouses as fast as required. The people of Prescott are now constructing a schoolhouse that will be a credit to the town and Territory. A schoolhouse was built below Phoenix, in Maricopa County, last year, and now the people of Phoenix are making arrangements and already have the necessary subscriptions to build one worthy of that enterprising and growing town. A schoolhouse is in process of construction at Florence in every way suitable

¹ Arizona School Report for 1908, pp. 90-92.

for the purpose. The people of Tucson are determined not to be outdone by their young neighbors, and are now making arrangements to build a house with sufficient capacity to accommodate 200 pupils, and we trust that the Safford [Safford?] and San Pedro settlements will not be behind in the good work. But the most encouraging feature of all is that our late legislature made provision for sufficient school revenue to keep free schools in operation in every school district in the Territory for from six to nine months during each year. With these advantages the poorest children of the Territory are provided with ample opportunities for an education, and if in after years they do not make useful men and women, it will be their own and not the fault of the Territory.

Continuing his remarks in this connection, Mr. Wasson says further:

We think it but right that credit should be awarded to the man whose persistent efforts have brought about the present interest in education. * * * We refer to Gov. A. P. K. Safford, who has worked night and day and traveled all over Arizona in this cause. We know that the people of the Territory will second what we say.¹

Such was contemporary and later opinion on the school work of Gov. Safford. It seems that with him the schools became almost a religion, for the unknown writer on the history of the public schools in 1894 credits him with using as a school motto:

The school first, the church second; no person can well understand and fulfill his obligations to God and to country without education.²

II. THE SITUATION IN 1875.

Gov. Safford's message to the legislature in 1875 was intended to advance still further the program already entered on and was couched in much the same noble and inspiring terms:

Under the present school law the free-school system has been made a success, and the means are afforded by which every child in this Territory can obtain the rudiments of an education. But a trifling sum is paid to officers for their services, and nearly the entire revenues are applied to the maintenance of schools. Great care should be taken to preserve the same economy now practiced in the disbursement of this fund, and radical changes in a law that has worked well should always be avoided. It is a subject of pride to every citizen that with all the difficulties we have encountered—amid poverty, death, and desolation, occasioned by our savage foes—the people, with great unanimity, have provided the necessary means to educate the rising generation, and upon no other subject are they so thoroughly united.

The legislature of 1875 made an extensive revision of the school act, but without changing its general essentials. The rate of Territorial school taxation was now fixed at 15 cents per hundred as against 10 cents in the act of 1871 and 25 cents in the act of 1873. The county school tax was fixed at 35 cents on the hundred as against 50 cents in 1871 and 25 cents in 1873; the pay of the county super-

¹ From Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1875, p. 469.

² Tucson Public School Report, 1893-94, p. 26.

intendents was continued at \$100 per year. The law of 1875 provided also that a county board, of which the county superintendent was to be the chairman, be appointed "for the purpose of examining applicants and granting certificates of qualification to teachers" covering spelling, reading, grammar, arithmetic, geography, physiology, "and such other studies as may be by said board deemed necessary."¹

Under the recommendations of Gov. Safford the first compulsory school act was passed in 1875.² It was, however, a mild one. It required children between 8 and 14 to attend a public school for at least 16 weeks in each school year, but there were numerous exemptions. They might be taught in private schools or at home, and were released from the obligation to attend if they lived more than 2 miles from the schoolhouse. As a matter of fact, the children were generally as willing to attend school as the people were to furnish schoolhouses. It was sometimes even impossible to enforce the act because of the lack of accommodations.

The most successful years of this period, the time when the schools reached their high-water mark, was in 1875 and 1876.³

The actual accomplishments of the schools during that time, as reported by Gov. Safford, show that there were 2,508 children of school age in the first of these years and 2,955 in the second. The enrollment was 568 and 1,213, respectively. Men still predominated as teachers, and in 1876 received on an average \$110 per month of 28 days; for the same period women averaged \$90. In 1875 the State tax produced \$4,690, the local tax \$9,232, and other funds \$14,837, making a total of \$28,760; in 1875-76 the total was \$31,449. In 1875 the total expenses were \$24,152; in 1876, \$28,744. One schoolhouse was erected in Prescott, costing \$17,339.30; one was built in Tucson out of private contributions costing \$9,781.96. It was thought—

that very nearly 50 per cent of the children in the Territory can now read and write. Every district in which there are sufficient children is supplied with a good free school. Many schoolhouses have been erected that would do credit to the older States. Considering the short time schools have been established and the many obstacles they have had to overcome, the situation, it is thought, is very encouraging.⁴

The relations of church and state had not yet been definitely settled, however. So earnest was Gov. Safford in his effort to main-

¹ Sess. Laws, 1875, pp. 80-90.

² Sess. Laws, 1875, pp. 40-42.

³ See reports of Gov. Safford to the United States Commissioner of Education and printed in his reports as follows: 1870, p. 318; 1871, p. 377; 1872, pp. 365-366; 1873, pp. 425-428; 1874, pp. 461-462; 1875, pp. 467-469; 1876, pp. 431-433; 1877, p. 275. The Commissioner of Education gives these years as running for 1874-75 and 1875-76, but Gov. Safford repeats them as of January to December, 1875 and 1876.

⁴ Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1876, pp. 431-432. See also Gov. Safford's annual reports on the schools for 1875 and 1876 (Tucson, 1877).

tain their separation that he even proposed that the law of exemptions be changed and that church property, except such as was used for schools and hospitals, be subject to taxation.¹

The setting in which Gov. Safford found himself shows that his exhortation against sectarian influence was not out of place. The Territory had celebrated its entrance on responsibility by giving public funds to a church institution, and in 1875 an effort to divide the public funds in the same manner had been defeated, not without effort. Says McCrea:²

In regard to the final settlement of the question we have this statement of the governor: "At this session (1875) an attempt was made to divide the school fund for the benefit of sectarian schools. The measure, though ardently supported by the chief justice of the Territory (Judge E. F. Dunne), was defeated by a large majority in the legislature."³ Of this struggle, fraught with so much of good or ill for the future of the schools, not a word is recorded in the journals of the assembly that settled it. Happily for Arizona, it was settled right, though that Territory then and there parted from New Mexico in educational policy.

Gov. Safford resigned his office in April, 1877, on account of ill health, and ceased to be superintendent of public schools. But to this interest he was true to the end. To the legislature of 1877 he said, in review of the past and in exhortation for the future:

The education of the rising generation has kept steady pace with the increase of population and wealth. This is a very marked and gratifying decline in illiteracy, and from the present efficiency and prosperity of the school system a continued or ever [*sic*] greater decline in illiteracy may confidently be expected. This large increase of revenue has been found necessary to supply the constant demand for new schools, the number of these having increased from 9, as reported two years ago, to 19. It is believed that the revenue referred to will be found sufficient to maintain the school system and provide for the constantly increasing demands upon it. After watching carefully the present school law during the past two years, I am of the opinion that in the main it meets the requirements as well as any law that can be devised. School laws, of all others, should be changed as seldom as possible.

Then follows an exhortation to guard the school as a "sacred trust" and to keep it "free from sectarian or political influences," for—

to surrender this system and yield to a division of the school fund upon sectarian grounds could only result in the destruction of the general plan for the

¹ Jours. Ninth Legislative Assembly, 1877, p. 44.

² McCrea, in Long's Report for 1907-8, pp. 95-96.

³ Judge Dunne's address was entitled: "Our Public Schools: Are They Free or Are They Not?" It was delivered in the hall of the House of Representatives in February, 1875, and was first published in the San Francisco Monitor and in the New York Freeman's Journal. It was then republished in pamphlet form (New York, 1875, O., pp. 32). As a result of his arguments, the introduction states that "a bill was introduced in the legislature providing for corporate schools such as Catholics desire. It came within one vote of passing in the council." In this lecture Judge Dunne also opposed compulsory-attendance laws. In both cases he based his arguments on the right of individual liberty.

education of the masses, and would lead, as it always has wherever tried, to the education of the few and the ignorance of the many.¹

The legislature of 1877 was mindful of the governor's injunction against too much legislative tinkering; only a single school law was passed this session, and it provided for a school census once in two years and required the district trustees to make full reports. The school year was now to begin on December 16; 5 days were made a week and 20 days a month, and no school might receive any benefits under the act unless its teachers had been "duly examined, approved, and employed by legal authority."²

But the heyday of the schools had passed for a time; the guiding hand was being removed. Gov. Safford was succeeded by Gov. John P. Hoyt, who was compiling a code for the Territory and had other interests, and the schools soon showed the ill effects. In 1876-77 Gov. Hoyt could report only 903 pupils in school, as against 1,213 for the previous year, with an average attendance of 580 against 900. The schools had increased from 21 to 28, the teachers from 21 to 31, the length of term to 190 days, but the pay of men teachers had fallen from \$110 to \$100 and that of women from \$90 to \$50. This was in keeping with income and expenditure; the former had decreased from \$31,449 to \$20,708; the latter from \$28,744 to \$18,407.³

III. PROGRESS UP TO 1879—BEGINNINGS IN THE CITIES.

The year 1877 may be counted as something of an era in Arizona. Gov. Safford left the Territory in a prosperous condition. The Indians had in the main been pacified, although outbreaks occurred after this date; the railroad was coming in from the west; many rich mines were being discovered, and prospectors were swarming into the Territory; since there was safety from the Indians, stockmen were bringing in herds of cattle and sheep to graze on fresh pastures, and the export and import trade was growing rapidly. The section north of the Gila received the bulk of this immigration, and this change in the balance of power was signalized by the removal of the capital from Tucson back to Prescott. At this date Mexican representation in the assembly practically ceased. In matters of education also a change was coming; on the one hand, a reaction had set in, but this was not clearly apparent till the guiding spirit of Gov. Safford was removed; on the other hand, the larger schools, like that at Prescott which had hitherto paid all its expenses as it went, now discounted the future by selling bonds to meet the cost of building schoolhouses.

¹ See *Jours. Ninth Legislative Assembly, Arizona, 1877*, pp. 30-32.

² *Sess. Laws, 1877*, ch. 20, pp. 14, 15.

³ *Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1877*, p. 275.

Having summarized statistically the educational progress made throughout the Territory under the administration of Gov. Safford up to his resignation in 1877, it may be of interest to say a word on the particular centers in which school work was then best developed, giving some notice also of the leading teachers, for whatever there was of local, as well as of Territorial school growth, was due in the main to the enthusiasm of Gov. Safford.

It appears that the first general survey of the school facilities of the Territory was made in 1874. In that year there was issued, under the direction of the legislature, a brief history and summary of "The Territory of Arizona," compiled by Gov. Safford.¹ That pamphlet shows the school development of each town, and indicates further that the public school entered upon a field entirely unoccupied by private enterprise:

Phoenix.—A good schoolhouse has been erected here, and a most excellent free school is now being taught and is attended by about 40 pupils. Six miles below, another school district has been organized and a schoolhouse erected. A free school has been open in this district four months during the year.

Florence.—The inhabitants have just completed a good schoolhouse, and a free school is now open, which is attended by about 40 pupils.

Cerbat.—A free school has been open in this place during six months of the year.

Tucson.—There are two public free schools in successful operation in charge of able and experienced teachers. The daily average attendance is about 75, and the number is constantly increasing.

Prescott.—A good public free school is now in operation in charge of a most excellent teacher; the daily average attendance is about 40, and a good schoolhouse has been erected at a cost of \$2,000.

Arizona City.—A good schoolhouse has been erected and a free public school in charge of an experienced teacher is now being taught. The number of children requires another teacher, and one has already been engaged.

Ehrenberg.—A free school has been open in this place three months during the present year, and it is anticipated that it will be kept open at least six months during the year to come. McCrea says that this school was opened in 1872 by Miss Mary E. Post, of Yuma.

In 1879 Col. Hodge made a record of all the schools of the Territory. There were then public schools at Yuma and Ehrenberg, Mineral Park, Cerbat, Prescott, Williamson Valley, Verde, Walnut Creek, Walnut Grove, Chino Valley, Kirkland Valley, Peeples Valley, Wickenburg, Phoenix, Florence, Tucson, Tres Alamos (on the

¹ Safford, A. P. K.: The Territory of Arizona; a brief history and summary. Tucson, 1874, pp. 6-10.

San Pedro), Safford, and a few other points. There were Catholic schools at Yuma and Tucson, and Indian schools had been established by the Federal Government at San Carlos and Sacaton.¹

The opening of the public schools in the various towns in the Territory, according to McCrea, McClintock, and the school reports on which these later writers are based, may be summarized briefly for convenience.²

Apparently the oldest schools in the Territory, both in the matter of actual age and in that of practical continuity, are those of Tucson.

McCrea says:

Under the law of 1868 or, as some claim, by private subscription, a public school was opened at Tucson, probably the first in the Territory, in the spring of 1869, by Augustus Brichta. The school term lasted six months, for two of which Mr. Brichta never received any pay, and 55 Mexican boys were enrolled. The school room was 25 by 40 feet, with a dirt roof and a dirt floor and no furniture except a few rudely constructed benches. The teacher found it difficult to obtain schoolbooks. There were no geographies in the school, and the pupils relied solely on the teacher for a knowledge of the earth beyond what they could see of it. Mr. Brichta was a man of character and ability and of prominence as a clerk in the legislative assembly, both before and after his experience as a schoolmaster in the Old Pueblo.

Apparently the next school in Tucson was that of John Spring, which was opened early in March, 1871. Of this school McCrea remarks:

The term continued for 15 months, and 133 boys were enrolled, most of whom were Mexicans. The attendance for the term was excellent, reaching 78 per cent of the enrollment.

Few of the pupils knew any English, and the teacher had to go over their lessons with them in Spanish before trying to teach them in English. A few of the older pupils had attended school for brief periods in Mexico or had received a little private instruction. The entire 138 seem to have been present by the third day. How one teacher could handle so many can be explained only by their known gentleness of nature, their general willingness to obey, and the constant support of the teacher's authority by the parents.

The school facilities were of the most primitive character. The schoolroom was a long adobe structure with dirt roof and dirt floor and homemade benches and desks in one piece, notable in no way except for solidity and liability to shed splinters.

It took much tact and persistence on the part of the teacher to break up truancy and keep tardiness within bounds and to induce pupils to "put in their appearance washed, combed, and brushed." The process was accelerated by reporting truancy to all parents and by the teacher taking some of the negligent boys to the school well and assisting them in their morning ablutions.

Gov. Safford showed his interest in this educational experiment in his capital in various ways. He presented the school with two dozen Ollendorf's Grammars, which were very useful for the more advanced class. Mr. Spring does not fail to pay a hearty tribute to the man who made the school possible. He

¹ McClintock, James H.: *History of Arizona*, II, p. 497.

² See McClintock, James H.: *History of Arizona*, II, 496, 567, 590; McCrea, *passim*, and superintendent's report for 1881, pp. 38-44.

says: "In conclusion I beg leave to say that all my hard work was made lighter and all my efforts were made more efficient by the constant kind help and advice of Gov. A. P. K. Safford, whose memory this and all future generations should forever revere as 'Father of Our Public Schools.'"¹

The next heard of the Tucson schools was in the summer of 1872, when a girls' school, which later became a part of the public-school system, was opened by Mrs. L. C. Hughes, wife of the probate judge of Pima County, who later became governor of the Territory. On February 4, 1873, this school received an official visit from the legislature, and during that year Gov. Safford, seeing that the schools had been carried on at irregular periods and by persons who had other vocations than teaching, and seeing, according to McCrea—

the great need of trained and experienced teachers and of continuity of effort, determined to secure such teachers for the schools of Tucson, if possible, and then to see that the schools were carried on for a fixed term each year. Through Surveyor General Wasson he got into communication with Miss Maria Wakefield, a teacher in the schools of Stockton, Cal., and was able to persuade her and a companion, Miss Harriet Bolton, to attempt the trip to the new land of promise. I have been able to secure an account both of their journey and their reception at Tucson from the daughter of Mrs. E. N. Fish, formerly Miss Wakefield, which account is approved by her mother and is given herewith:

"In 1873 my mother was teaching in the public schools of Stockton, Cal., when she received a letter from Gov. Safford asking her to come to Tucson, bringing a competent primary teacher with her, to open the public school. This letter also advised them to start immediately, as the Apaches were then in the eastern part of the Territory and travel was comparatively safe. Accordingly, on October 26, they left Stockton for San Francisco, where they took a steamer for San Diego. From there, after five days and nights of continuous stage riding, the longest stop being 20 minutes to change horses and partake of the wretched food provided at the stations, they arrived in Tucson. Few can realize the terrors of such a journey, with the bright moonlight transforming every giant cactus into an armed Apache and every clump of brush into an ambush. Each driver contributed a new lot of stories of the horrible deeds of the Indians, pointing out here and there along the way where this freight train was captured and the men murdered, and that stage taken, and that family massacred, keeping those two terror-stricken women constantly, by day and night, on the lookout for Apaches. They did not then know that Apaches do not attack by night.

"The good people of Tucson had arranged two very comfortable rooms for them. Gov. Safford and his good friend, Surveyor General Wasson, left nothing undone to assist in the difficult task of establishing a public school. The priests were bitter in their denunciations, and were formidable antagonists, even going so far as to threaten parents if they allowed their children to attend the public school. Gov. Safford was generous almost beyond his salary in giving books and clothes to needy children to enable them to attend school. Above all, the one great desire of Gov. Safford's heart was the welfare of the public school." * * *

¹ Superintendent's Report, Arizona, 1908, pp. 86-87. See also historical sketch in Tucson Public School Report, 1893-94, pp. 30-32. Under date of June 17, 1872, Gov. Safford sent \$30 to the school trustees of Prescott as a gift from his brother, A. B. Safford, of Cain, Ill., "to help build" a schoolhouse there. Arizona Miner, July 20, 1872.

The success of the schools during this period was marked. One teacher had charge of the boys, the other of the girls, in separate rooms. There was an average attendance of 50 boys and 25 girls. Nor did those teachers lose their interest in education when they left the schoolroom, for not long after we find one of them a leader in a successful effort to supply the town with a much-needed school building, and we may be sure the other heartily seconded her efforts.

This effort grew directly out of the struggle in 1875 over the question of State support of sectarian schools. After this question had been definitely settled the need for better school facilities was more keenly realized. The effort to secure a better public-school building in Tucson has been graphically told by McCrea:

Nothing was more characteristic of this assembly [1875] than the following resolution, offered by Hon. S. B. De Long, of Tucson, and readily adopted by the council of January 15, 1875; "*Resolved*, That the use of this hall is hereby offered to the ladies of Tucson who propose giving a social party on Thursday evening next, 21st instant, for the purpose of raising funds to be appropriated to the building of a public schoolhouse." The party was duly given and was so well managed by the ladies in charge, Mrs. Lord and Mrs. Fish, that \$1,300 was realized from it. A second dancing party netted \$1,100, and a third \$1,000. It is said that at one of the parties given a cake was sold and resold until the proceeds from the sale reached more than \$200. This money was turned over to the school board, composed of Estevan Ochoa, R. N. Leatherwood, and Samuel Hughes. Mr. Ochoa either donated, or sold at a nominal figure, the lot needed. The lumber used in the great porch in front was donated by the Army officers at Fort Grant and was hauled free of charge by the teams of Tully and Ochoa more than 100 miles. At last the Congress Street building, an adobe structure of three rooms, was completed at a cost of \$9,782 and was for a brief time the best school building in Arizona.

Of the later history of the Tucson schools, Prof. McCrea continues:

In the fall of 1874 Prof. W. B. Horton, who was a Scotchman by birth and a graduate of a college of Edinburgh, was elected principal of the Tucson Public School.¹ During the first year he was supplied with two assistants, one to teach the girls and one to aid him in teaching the boys. The schools greatly prospered under his management. Although he began school work in Arizona later than Prof. Sherman, he is worthy in every way to be ranked with him. For the next five years he continued to demonstrate the value of the public school as a civilizing agency, under circumstances far less favorable than were then supplied at Prescott.

Prof. Horton remained at Tucson for more than six years, being succeeded in February, 1881, by George C. Hall,² who says that Horton was the real founder of the public schools there. Prof. Hall adds:

To his hands was committed a difficult task, and to properly estimate the value of his work one should understand and appreciate the obstacles and diffi-

¹ So says McCrea. Ex-Supt. Long says that the statement as to Horton's birth and education is an error, and that he was a native of Georgia.

² Hall served from 1881 to 1884. For list of later superintendents see Tucson Public School Reports, 1893-94, p. 32.

culties with which he had to contend in conducting a cosmopolitan school in which there was more or less race prejudice and where, in the minds of certain members of the community at large, there existed an unfavorable opinion of our public system of instruction. The instability of society, incident to all frontier cities, and the rude appliances with which he began his work were further obstacles. Many young men of this city and other places in the Territory owe to him all that makes them useful members of society. Six years' faithful service in the schools of a city should entitle a teacher to the gratitude of its people.

Gov. Safford mentions a school as being taught in Prescott as early as 1870 by S. C. Rogers, but nothing is known of its subsequent history. Of education in Prescott Prof. McCrea says:

Having set the schools of Tucson in motion, the governor turned his attention to northern Arizona. In 1873 Prescott, which was the center of a considerable American population, became much interested in education. Capable teachers were hard to secure. In that year Gov. Safford induced Prof. Moses H. Sherman to come to Prescott to be principal of the public school. It is claimed that the governor even borrowed and sent Prof. Sherman the money necessary to meet the expense of the long and costly trip from Vermont to Prescott. The new principal was a graduate of the New York State Normal School at Oswego, and proved a most successful teacher. Under his management was inaugurated the first graded school in Arizona. The school grew so rapidly that a new and better building was demanded. The work of raising funds by popular subscription—the only method available—began in 1874, and the building, which was a fine two-story brick, was completed in 1876, costing, when fully furnished, more than \$17,000, and capable of seating 200 pupils. In providing this building, by far the best in the Territory for several years to come, the Prescott people found themselves in debt, and the school district officials thought best to ask the legislative assembly for authority to issue bonds to meet the remaining indebtedness.

The first public school was opened in Phoenix, September 5, 1872, by J. D. Daroche. This school was located on the present First Avenue, just south of Washington Street. Later a little adobe building was erected on North Center Street and served as the permanent school home for some years. The salary of the first teachers, of whom there was a rapid succession, was \$100 per month. The head of the school in 1879-80 was Robert L. Long, later State superintendent.

The first school was opened in Tombstone in February, 1880, by Miss Lucas, "in a little room with a dirt floor and a mud roof. Nine was the number of pupils in attendance the first day, which was increased to about 40 before the close of the term. Miss Lucas was succeeded by Miss McFarland. The school grew with the growing town." The trustees began the erection of a school building, 50 by 30 feet, which was ready in January, 1881. A second teacher was employed, and the enrollment that year reached 128, with an average attendance of 83.¹

¹ Superintendent's Report for 1881, pp. 40-42.

McCrea reports (p. 92) schools in Florence, Safford, Ehrenberg, Yuma, and other towns in 1873. In 1879 the schools of Florence were said to be in a flourishing condition.¹

The first schoolhouse in Globe was built in 1880 in the southern part of what was then the camp and was placed in charge of G. J. Scanlan.²

So much for the development of the schools in separate centers in the Territory. Although evolved under a Territorial law, there was as yet little unity among them, for they were largely supported by local funds, there was little connection with one another, and solidarity of feeling had not developed. A new stage of development and progress began with the school law of 1879.

It seems proper to add as a fitting close to this chapter the appreciation of Gov. Safford's work written by the first historian of education in Arizona. Prof. McCrea,³ in concluding his estimate of this period, says:

Whatever might have been his feeling in the matter, Gov. Safford had reasons for being proud of his work for education in Arizona. He was a great governor in many respects, but he was greatest of all in his labors for the public school. He had been able to lead an unwilling assembly to adopt an efficient school law, and to modify it only as needed. From a scanty population scattered far and near, and constantly harassed by the Indians, he had secured liberal appropriations for schools. Though unused to American institutions, the strong foreign element had been won over by his wisdom and patience, and the Americans were glad to follow so able a leader. At the close of his work he could point to a score of teachers employed, and to as many schoolrooms erected by the voluntary contributions of the people. Since 1871 more than \$120,000 had been raised for school purposes, yet he left the Territory to his successor practically free of debt, a happy condition it has never since known. But of all the success of this period was the great heart and strong purpose of a man anxious to see a good start made on the work, not yet completed, of making good Americans of some very unpromising material through the agency of the public school. The idea seems to have been his religion, and right well did he live it. Although no school building bears his name in the town he did so much to rescue from oblivion, he will live in the affections of the people of the Territory as the "Father of the Arizona Public School."

To this high but well-deserved praise the present writer would give his most unqualified assent.

¹ Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1879.

² Ex relatione, R. L. Long.

³ McCrea, in Long's Report for 1908, pp. 100, 101.

Chapter IV.

THE SUPERINTENDENT MADE AN INDEPENDENT OFFICER—ADMINISTRATIONS OF SHERMAN AND HORTON, 1879-1885.

As shown in an earlier chapter of this study, the development of the public schools began with the administration of Gov. Safford. He created the Arizona schools and then became the Moses to lead them out of the wilderness toward a better organization, with increasing appreciation of their value, growing attendance, and developing resources. Unfortunately his work was retarded by ill health, so that he resigned the governorship about April, 1877, and was succeeded by John P. Hoyt as acting governor. Then came, on June 12, 1878, the appointment of John C. Frémont as governor. It has been said that Frémont never regarded this appointment "as worthy of his ability and fame," but, however regarded, the evidence is that Govs. Hoyt and Frémont were of little direct service in advancing the cause of the schools.

I. THE ACT OF 1879 AND THE NEW DEVELOPMENT.

The progress of education in Arizona during the period beginning about 1878 was, as McCrea points out (p. 101), more closely connected with the material development of the Territory than with the personnel of the officers, as had been the case during the earlier period. Rich mines were being discovered, and two railroads now traversed the Territory from east to west. These roads made its mines accessible, opened its resources, and led to great immigration. The population more than doubled in the eighties, and more people meant more school children, more school revenue, and of necessity better schools.

The law of 1879 made it more possible to collect this increased revenue. This act was itself an innovation and improvement on the earlier school acts. Its most important change was one which provided that a superintendent of public instruction should be appointed by the governor "by and with the consent of the legislative council." In 1880 his successor was to be elected by popular vote; he was put under a \$2,000 bond; was to hold office for two years; and received under this law a salary of \$1,000, which in 1881 was increased to \$2,000.¹

¹Session laws, 1881, ch. 33.

A Territorial tax of 15 cents on the \$100 was to be levied, and the county board of supervisors was ordered to levy a county school tax of not less than 50 nor more than 80 cents on the \$100, which "shall be added to the county tax and collected in the same manner and paid into the county treasury as a special fund."

The Territorial board of education was reconstituted, and was now made up of the superintendent as president and secretary, with the governor and Territorial treasurer as the other members. Their duties were of the same character as those of the earlier board, while a bid for incoming teachers was made by providing that "such professional teachers as may be found upon examination, or by diplomas from other States or Territories requiring similar qualifications, to possess the requisite scholarship and culture" might have their diplomas countersigned by the Territorial superintendent and these then became valid for life unless formally revoked.

The superintendent was required, among other duties, to apportion Territorial school funds according to the number of children 6 to 21 years of age; he was to make an annual visit to each county and publish an annual report. It was made the duty of the county superintendent to distribute the county funds to the school districts in proportion to attendance during the three months previous.

In other respects the school law remained largely as it was, except that the salary of the probate judges when acting as county school superintendents was raised from \$100 to \$250 per year, and in 1881 (ch. 33) this was still further increased by dividing the counties into four classes according to the number of school districts and paying the superintendents from \$250 to \$1,000 per annum, according to the size of their territory.

Another section of this law—an echo of the struggle in 1877 against the proposed union of church and state—was the thirty-eighth, which declares:

No books, tracts, or papers of a sectarian or denominational character shall be used or introduced in any school established under the provisions of this act; nor shall sectarian or denominational doctrine be taught therein; nor shall any school whatever receive any of the public school funds which has not been taught in accordance with the provisions of this act.

It is clear that this new law reorganized the school system in a way which looked toward greater centralization and efficiency. The Territorial superintendent was now a separate official, with large supervisory powers. The county superintendency was not yet a separate office, but large supervisory powers were put into the hands of the probate judge, if he could find time and place to exercise them, but under the circumstances and with the large counties this was a practical impossibility.

In each school district there was a local board of three trustees who provided for, controlled, and directed the school. Each set of officers made a report to the next higher. The funds came from Territorial and county sources.¹ When these were insufficient to provide a school for three months, the local district was required to make up the deficit as well as provide the schoolhouse and furniture. In such cases anything more than the three months' term depended on the will of the local district, which had to be expressed by a two-thirds vote. This was a weak point in the system and struck the scattered country districts most heavily. The school term in the towns soon ran up in length, but those of the country schools were low, often perilously close to the three months' limit, or even below it.

There was as yet no general law under which towns or school districts might issue bonds for use in building schoolhouses. The first of such issues seems to have been that of Prescott, in 1877, for \$7,200, made under a special act.² In 1879 similar special acts were passed in favor of Phoenix for \$15,000,³ and Tucson for \$20,000,⁴ and in 1883 Tombstone secured an issue for \$15,000.⁵

The only other enactment of the session of 1879 bearing on education was one chartering the Arizona Development Co., which, under color of aiding "in the construction of capitol buildings and for the support of the public schools of the Territory," provided for the running of a lottery in the Territory, the governor being made commissioner to superintend the drawings, while 10 per cent of the prizes distributed were to be reserved for the use of the Territory. It was perfectly evident, however, that the real purpose of this act was not to build the capitol nor to advance the schools but to permit the existence of a lottery.⁶

It is now desirable to follow so far as possible the fortunes of the schools under the act of 1879. It may be noticed at once that the school system so patiently and laboriously built up by Gov. Safford did not command the respect of Gov. Frémont sufficiently to give it a place in his message to the assembly, either in 1879 or 1881. McCrea remarks that although Gov. Frémont was a man of liberal education "he exhibited but little interest in the question of schools in Arizona." McCrea found but one reference by Frémont to the school

¹ Ch. 45, 1879, provided that one-half the money collected on licenses for gambling, other than village licenses, should go to the county school fund. The school act of 1883 gave all "fines, forfeitures, and gambling licenses" to the county school fund, except such as were collected in incorporated towns and villages. Escheats under this act went to the Territorial school fund.

² Session Laws, 1877, ch. 37.

³ Session Laws, 1879, ch. 17.

⁴ *Ibid.*, ch. 25.

⁵ Session Laws, 1883, ch. 13.

⁶ Session Laws, 1879, ch. 16. It was repealed by Session Laws, 1881, ch. 20. A vigorous effort was made in 1887 to reenact a similar law, but it was defeated by the veto of Gov. Zulick. See Council Jour., 1887, pp. 199-203.

system, which he then generously characterized as being in "admirable condition."

II. SHERMAN BECOMES THE FIRST INDEPENDENT TERRITORIAL SUPERINTENDENT.

Closely following his own accession to office, and within a few days after the enactment of the law of February 14, 1879, Gov. Frémont appointed Prof. Moses H. Sherman as his representative to take over the work of the Territorial school superintendent, which, in earlier years, had been performed by the governor himself¹—for the purpose of the act of 1871 had been to add this school supervision to the duties of the governor, with no extra pay except an allowance of \$500 for traveling. The governor was now relieved of the duty, and the \$500 allowed him for expenses was given to his successor as salary. Prof. Sherman was a trained school man; he had been for five years at the head of the Prescott schools, was already at the head of his profession in Arizona, and his entrance on the Territorial superintendency was recognized as an advance by the United States Commissioner of Education, who said in his report for 1878 (p. 268):

Even the few statistics received show the advantage of having a superintendent who can give his whole attention to school work, as was the case for the first time in 1878.

Prof. Sherman's term of office extended from February, 1879, to January 11, 1881, and was continued—by a popular election, in 1880—from January, 1881, to January, 1883. During these years Supt. Sherman did not, however, devote all of his time to Territorial education. He remained principal of the schools of Prescott, and he gave to the Territorial schools such time only as he could spare from his local school duties. Certainly Territorial duties were of less importance from the financial side, and it has been said even that the Territorial superintendency was during this administration little more than a sinecure.

McCrea remarks that the duties of the Territorial superintendency "were mainly of a clerical nature;" and, therefore, that Supt. Sherman was not compelled to relinquish his position as principal of the public schools of Prescott, but continued to serve both the town and the Territory until 1883. McCrea believed that Supt. Sherman's "reputation for efficient work for educational interests in Arizona would no doubt have been greater had he confined his services to one or the other, instead of trying to serve both." The Territorial work may have been made clerical from choice, but was not so from

¹ There are indications that Sherman had acted in this capacity before his formal appointment, but ex-Supt. Long thinks that this was not the case.

necessity. There was sufficient authority under the law of 1879, for the superintendent to travel throughout the Territory and to supervise not in name and form merely, but in reality.

Indeed, the progress, which was soon apparent, following the appointment of Sherman, seems to prove that there was at least some supervision, for the slump of 1876-77 was soon overcome, and as early as 1877-78, the superintendent could show that the schools were already on the upward grade. In the latter year he reported 3,089 youth of school age, of whom 2,740 were enrolled, giving a percentage of 88, although the average daily attendance was put down at 890, or 32 per cent of the enrollment. The length of the term was 124 days, as against 190 for 1876-77; the teachers numbered 37 as against 31; the pay of the men fell from \$100 per month to \$91; but that of the women rose from \$50 to \$74. The total expenditures equaled the total income, which was \$21,396.

If comparison should be made of the school situation in 1873 and 1880, great progress would be noted. The school enumeration was 4 times as great, the enrollment 10 times, and school property 16 times. Schoolrooms had increased from 11 to 101, and teachers from 14 to 101, but salaries had fallen from \$100 per month to \$83 for men and to \$70 for women.

Of Sherman's work for the Territorial schools, McCrea continues:

The new superintendent of public instruction entered upon his duties with energy and enthusiasm, and the schools in the next two years showed a wonderful growth. It is difficult to say what part of this was due to the efforts of the superintendent and what part was the result of the favorable industrial conditions in Arizona and the considerable immigration into the Territory.

In 1880 the favorable report of the year before was improved upon in most particulars. Though the number of pupils seeking to attend school was far greater than the accommodations afforded, no effort was made to enforce the compulsory law. The short school terms in many of the schools seriously interfered with their usefulness. Most of the town schools were taught from 150 to 200 days, while the county school terms seldom exceeded 100 days, and were sometimes as brief as 40 days. The lack of sufficient funds in the rural schools, and the too frequent changes of teachers and of the county superintendents, were reported by the superintendent to be the greatest obstacles in the way of the progress of the public schools.

It will be recalled that while public lands had been set aside by Congress for the endowment of the schools when the Territory became a State, none of this land had as yet become available for schools. Gov. Safford had sought authority for the Territory to sell some of these lands, but had failed. Supt. Sherman now sought to bring the matter again before Congress, with the idea of selling the lands and reinvesting the proceeds in productive securities, but failed. Under the act of April 7, 1896, the Territory was first given authority to lease its lands; authority to sell came only with statehood.

Supt. Sherman made reports on the public schools under his authority for the years 1879 and 1880. These are summarized in the reports for the United States Commissioner of Education for 1879-80 and 1880-81. The progress reported for 1879-80 over 1878-79 was very gratifying and more or less uniform, except in length of term. In 1878-79 the latter is given as 165 days, while the next year it went down to 109. In explanation it was said that the city and village schools were taught from 150 to 200 days, while the terms of the country schools were seldom over 100, and sometimes as low as 40 days. There was also a decrease of \$1 in the average monthly salary, from \$84 to \$83. The income under the law of 1879 was more than twice what it had been under the old law. In 1878-79 the income and expenditures were, respectively, \$32,421 and \$29,200; in 1879-80 they were \$67,028 and \$61,172.

The enrollment in 1879-80 was one-fourth larger than in 1878-79; the average attendance was one-half larger; and the per cent of attendance on enrollment rose from 63.4 per cent in 1878-79 to 67.7 per cent in 1879-80.¹

In some districts there were no schools, and large numbers of children never attended school at all, and yet the accommodations were so poor and so meager that it was impossible to take care of all who applied for admission; it was therefore still impossible to enforce the compulsory law of 1875.

Sherman's report for the period of his administration as a direct representative of the people, 1881-1883, has been seen. Like all other officers engaged in similar work, he has the usual complaint that reports to him were incomplete, and that the county superintendents, tied down as they were by their duties as probate judges, could not go out among the schools and learn for themselves, but must depend on such information as might be sent in by individual teachers; hence the general report necessarily fell short of showing the actual condition of schools, but with the aid of reports from the various counties, he is able to give a general survey of the Territory as a whole. He points out that the main difficulty was in the sparsely settled rural district, with its short term. This term was often only three months, the minimum requirement to meet the law, and was not only too short for the good of the child, but was in proportion unduly costly.

In 1882 the superintendent reported "good progress," but the difficulties were the same as ever. The probate judge's time and attention were too much filled to make him a good school officer; besides, this office demanded a man particularly trained and qualified. Progress had been made in the erection of schoolhouses, but the

¹ Rept. U. S. Commis. of Educ., 1880, pp. 352-355.

expense of good buildings had fallen on those directly interested, and this indicates that houses were built either by private subscription or by a local tax authorized by a two-thirds vote.

Nor was the method of apportioning the Territorial funds producing the best results. Under the law these were apportioned according to school population, and in consequence—

the bulk of it goes to the larger towns, and the outside districts seldom have enough to keep their schools going for more than three or four months in the year. I would suggest that the Territorial school money to which each county is entitled be divided equally among all the districts. This plan would aid very materially the outside districts, and would work no injury on the schools in the towns and villages. In nearly every town of any importance in the Territory, such as Globe and Tucson, there is an abundance of school money, far more than will be required for school purposes for the present year. Such an amendment, changing the manner of apportioning the Territorial school funds, would work no hardship on populous towns, and would build up the outside districts.¹

It was urged that boards of school supervisors were sometimes indifferent to expenses, and even in this uncontaminated region it was felt necessary to warn districts to get the best men possible for school trustees and "that they do not change for the mere sake of rotation."

The superintendent was able to show clearly marked evidence of progress. Yavapai County, with its 28 school districts and its 2,086 pupils, claimed to be the leader in matters educational. In 1882 the Territorial board adopted a uniform series of textbooks. "Heretofore, in some districts, there were often as many as three or four different kinds of readers. This made the labor of the teacher much harder and the number of classes greater." The report for 1882 adds the gratifying information: "In nearly every district in the Territory a cheap, uniform set of books is now in use."

In January, 1882, a printed list of questions was furnished by the superintendent to each of the county boards of examiners, which served as a general and uniform Territorial examination for all teachers, and showed that the school courses were expanding. It included geography and "other natural sciences," grammar, botany, theory and practice of teaching, arithmetic, United States history and constitution, reading, physiology and the laws of health, and orthography.

About the same time, and under the same authority, the superintendent published a manual of school work which was to serve teachers as a guide in their duties. The school course there outlined covered a total school period of $8\frac{1}{2}$ years of 10 months each. It was divided into what may be called the primary and grammar-grade courses. The primary work began with what was called the fifth

¹ Reports for 1881 and 1882, pp. 8-9.

grade and went backwards. The first grade covered two and a half years, or five terms, and was followed by an advanced grade that covered two years. The last term of the first grade included reading, spelling, arithmetic, language, geography, writing, drawing, history, physiology, and philosophy. The first term of the advanced grade dealt with reading, writing, history, composition, physiology, algebra, and philosophy; while the third and fourth terms of this course covered reading, drawing, history, composition and literature, physiology, algebra, geometry, political economy, chemistry, and book-keeping.

It is evident that the pupils who were able to follow these courses to their completion would be well prepared for real high-school work. Along with this guide went a series of suggestions to teachers on methods of teaching.

At the time covered by this report (1881 and 1882) the town situation seems to have been in general very satisfactory. In Prescott the attendance was larger than ever before; "the scholars seem to study for the sake of learning"; but there was a great drawback in the irregularity of attendance, "as is the case in all frontier towns" and others as well. "The school is being graded as rapidly as possible."

In Tombstone the session of 1881-82 was the second, and started off with 135 pupils the first day. The schoolhouse was divided into two rooms for two teachers, but was not big enough; the Turnverein Hall was rented, and a third teacher employed; then the Presbyterian Church and a fourth teacher were secured. The average attendance that year was 188; the several private schools opened the year before now gave place to the public schools, and patent benches were put into the schoolhouse owned by the district. On December 28, 1882, the enrollment was 276, with an average attendance of 240. There were then five teachers in the school, counting the principal. The six grades, as required in the public-school manual (five primary and one advanced), were provided, and the advanced grade "is prepared for high-school work, which it is now doing in part." In this connection Prof. M. H. Sherman, then superintendent of Tombstone, recommended the establishment of a high school, and this seems to have been and is perhaps to be properly counted as the real beginning of advanced educational work in the Territory.

In 1881 Prof. George C. Hall reported the Tucson schools as organized into three divisions: Primary, with four grades; grammar, with four; a high school, with literary and scientific courses covering three years. The pupils were graded, and separate schools for boys and for girls had been abolished. It now has four regular and two special teachers—in Spanish and music. In 1883, \$40,000 of short-time bonds for a new schoolhouse were issued.¹ The high school at

¹ Session Laws of Arizona, 1883, ch. 34.

Tucson dates from 1880; in 1887-88 there were 21 pupils, but no class was graduated till 1893.¹

At the expiration of his term of office in January, 1883, Prof. M. H. Sherman surrendered the duties of superintendent of public instruction to Prof. William B. Horton. After he left school work, Supt. Sherman was appointed by Gov. Tritle, in 1883, adjutant general to provide against a threatened Apache uprising. Later he became president of a bank in Phoenix, and amassed a fortune from Arizona and California investments. He is still living (1917). McCrea's estimate of Sherman's educational work is somewhat evasive. He says that Sherman's work—

for the schools of the Territory is somewhat difficult to estimate. Coming into the Territory in 1873 at the request of Gov. Safford, he soon impressed the people of Arizona with his ability and energy, and was given honorable and lucrative employment in school work for many years. His superior business insight, coupled with the excellent opportunities in that early period, enabled him to lay the foundation of a fortune, and to become one of the best-known men of the Territory. He did good work for the public school of Prescott, winning for it a reputation which made it preeminent in the Territory. His work as superintendent of public instruction was mainly clerical, though to some extent administrative. With his constant duties at Prescott for the greater part of the year, there was no chance for visiting the various schools and inspiring the teachers and communities with the enthusiasm so much needed to sustain them in their work. The extent to which he influenced legislative action, for other than his own ends, is somewhat problematic. In some respects he was a worthy successor of Gov. Safford, even if lacking in the disposition to make any considerable sacrifice for the cause of education, as was common with the great executive.²

III. HORTON BECOMES SUPERINTENDENT, 1883-1885.

Prof. William B. Horton, the successor of Prof. Moses Hazeltine Sherman and the second Territorial superintendent of public instruction for Arizona, was the first to devote the whole of his time to the duties of his office. He came to Arizona in 1874, where he became a successful teacher. His period of administration as Territorial superintendent was from January, 1883, to January, 1885, and his one published report covers the period from September 1, 1882, to August 31, 1884.

This period was marked as one of renewed activity in school affairs. It began with Gov. Tritle's message to the assembly in January, 1883, when he pointed out that many small communities received no aid because of "the necessity of only organizing schools with large numbers of pupils." He thought that this situation was due to lack of funds, and this to failure to derive any income from school lands.

¹ See Report Tucson Public Schools, 1896-97, p. 5.

² McCrea, *loc. cit.*, pp. 109, 110.

The most important legislative action in 1883 was the school law which should be considered rather a revision than a new law. McCreia thinks the new provisions were due to Supt. Horton and that they were borrowed from the California law. They are summarized as follows:

The presidency of the Territorial board of education was transferred from the superintendent to the governor; the superintendent was given \$500 for traveling and \$500 for printing and office expenses, and was to visit each county; the salary of the county superintendents was increased. They were started on a basis of \$300 pay for 10 districts, and to this as a basis \$25 was added for each additional district, but the office was not yet made distinct from that of probate judge. Particular efforts were made to guard and hedge about the spending of school funds. It was provided that in counties where the school districts numbered 20 or more the superintendent might, in his discretion, hold a teachers' institute of three to five days each year at a total cost of not over \$50. All public-school teachers were required to attend, and if school was in session their absence was not counted as time lost. Every county, city, or incorporated town, unless subdivided, formed a school district, but none might be organized with less than 10 pupils or until school had actually commenced in the new district. The local district school trustees were elected annually, and no person was ineligible either to vote or hold the office because of sex. The census marshal took the census every odd year. Unless otherwise provided, all schools were to be divided into primary and grammar schools and were to give instruction in English, in reading, writing, orthography, arithmetic, geography, grammar, history of the United States, elements of physiology and of bookkeeping, vocal music, industrial drawing "and such other studies as the Territorial board of education may prescribe," and in manners and morals during the entire course. The school day was fixed at six hours, but no pupil under 8 was to be kept in school more than four hours.

The sections on district libraries were new. They provided that 10 per cent of the Territorial school fund up to \$200 be apportioned to each district and constitute "a library fund." This fund and "such moneys as may be added thereto by donation" should be spent "in the purchase of school apparatus and books for school libraries." The latter were kept in the schoolhouses and were open to pupils and residents of the district.

The rate of taxation for schools was unchanged, but funds were increased by giving the proceeds of escheats to the Territorial school fund, and the proceeds from fines, forfeitures, and gambling licenses, except in incorporated places, to the county school fund. The right

of voting on special district taxes was shifted from "qualified voters" to "taxpayers."

Supt. Horton's published report, covering the period September 1, 1882, to August 31, 1884, shows an essential differentiation in its review from earlier ones. There were signs of general improvement:

Our teaching force has also increased, there being 45 more teachers than reported last year. Many of our teachers have had the advantages of a normal-school training, and it is a noticeable fact that at least one-half of those who have applied for certificates during the last two years [25 were granted] are graduates of universities or normal schools. The standard of scholarship required for license to teach is being gradually raised throughout the Territory. The county examiners are using commendable zeal in the matter, and are more careful in granting certificates, and the consequence is better teaching ability is coming to the front.

This desirable result was attained notwithstanding the examiners were unpaid and gave their time at financial loss to themselves. Examinations were held three times a year; there were two grades of certificates given, and 75 per cent was the passing mark. For the second grade the applicant was examined on arithmetic (oral and written), grammar (oral and written), orthography, geography, history, methods of teaching, penmanship, composition, and word analysis. To these subjects there were added, for the first-grade certificate, physiology and algebra. These were county certificates; the first grade was good for four years; the second grade for two. A first-grade certificate was necessary to teach the grammar grades.

The new schoolhouses erected during this period were said to be very substantial and well adapted for their purpose:

Several of them have been built with an eye to beauty of design and finish, as well as to comfort, and are supplied with the latest improved furniture and apparatus. The public-school buildings in Prescott, Phoenix, Tucson, and Tombstone will compare very favorably with those of many of the States or Territories. Florence has nearly completed a substantial school building, and Yuma will soon begin the erection of one. The rural districts have shown an equal desire to have comfortable and attractive school buildings. This is particularly noticeable in the counties of Cochise, Graham, Apache, Yavapai, and Maricopa. The majority of the country schools are now supplied with the necessary school apparatus.

In his report to the Secretary of the Interior, dated September 30, 1883, which may be taken as substantially representing the school year 1882-83, Gov. Tritle gave the number of the schools as follows: Yavapai, 29; Apache, 15; Cochise, 11; Pima and Maricopa, 10 each; Pinal, 7; Graham, 6; Gila, Yuma, and Mohave, 3 each.

By reason of the negligence, indifference, or ignorance of some of the local school trustees, the schools got little supervision from them, and the duties of the county superintendent were such as to leave them "virtually without supervision," for the duties of the probate

judge prevented him from being absent from his office for any length of time, even on school duties. The result was that much school money was dissipated or wasted because of this lack of supervision. It was declared that there was "no bar or hindrance to a vast expenditure of school money by dishonest trustees" and it was considered "of the utmost importance that every possible guard be placed around our school fund." The law of 1883 sought to remedy this situation.

The necessity of this will be realized more clearly when it is remarked that in Pima County, for instance, the tax collected for schools "was far in excess of what was necessary." The law required a county tax of not less than 50 cents on the hundred; the Territorial tax was 15 cents; to the county fund was to be added under the acts of 1879 and 1883 the income from fines and gambling licenses, and to the Territorial fund the income from escheated estates. The total income in Pima County in 1882-83 was \$26,872, and the school term was five and one-half months. In Pima in 1883-84, \$40,000 was raised by district or local taxes, and the total receipts were \$85,812. The total expenditures were \$62,551, and there was a surplus of more than \$24,000. This was the best report from any county; in general the balances were small and not beyond the margin of safety.

Because of the difficulties of travel, no teachers' institutes had been held during the two years, but the superintendent's opinion was that in most of the counties institutes could be held with marked advantage. He thought that in few States or Territories were better salaries paid to teachers in rural districts than in Arizona. No printed report covering the rural districts alone is available, but salaries paid in the counties varied from \$60 per month in Apache and \$75 in Maricopa and Graham to \$95 in Cochise and \$99 in Gila. The average for 1882-83 was \$80.75, and in 1883-84, \$84.90.

The total income of the public schools in the Territory for 1883-84 was \$205,901.28, and the expenditures were \$161,861.57. In 1883 seven libraries were reported. They had 451 volumes, worth \$1,079.10, and an annual expenditure of \$114.21. In 1884 there were 32 libraries, with 909 volumes, worth \$1,685.47, and an annual expenditure of \$618.33.¹

The textbooks adopted by the board of education on March 21, 1881, and still in use, included Appleton's readers, geographies, and arithmetics; Webster's speller, model copy books; Quackenbos's language lessons, grammar, histories, philosophy, and Composition and Rhetoric; Krusi's drawing; and Appleton's series of Science Primers for chemistry, physics, physical geography, geology, physiology, astronomy, botany, logic, inventional geometry, piano playing, and political economy.

¹ Pima County reported \$2,422 expended for school libraries, which is doubtless an error, for other items of furniture and apparatus are presumably included.

These books were reported to be in general use in the Territory, and in most cases gave satisfaction. They were not furnished free, but "in a number of instances the districts have supplied the children with textbooks from the school fund," and from this custom was deduced an argument for free textbooks in general, which was favored by the superintendent.

During this administration the question of school and university lands became acute. Supt. Sherman had located (December, 1882) the 72 sections of university land in the San Francisco Mountains in a region heavily timbered with pine and valuable only for its timber. These lands had been withdrawn from market, but were subject to depredators, and had been denuded to a certain extent. It was pointed out by the superintendent that they should be placed under the control and management of the proper Territorial authorities to prevent depreciation. It was said that in many cases the public-school lands were of no value, and that steps should be taken to have these worthless sections replaced while timberlands were still unoccupied.

Prof. McCrea thinks that—

from a financial standpoint the schools of Arizona were probably never in so good a condition as during their administration by Supt. Horton. There was a substantial growth of the population, and the development of the natural resources went forward at a rapid rate. The burdens of taxation had not yet become so apparent, and the people were willing to spend money liberally on the education of their children.

He comments further on the work of Supt. Horton:

Supt. Horton made an effort to inspect the schools of Arizona in order to learn their true condition. This kind of work had not been done since Gov. Safford left the Territory. On account of the size of the country, the scattered settlements, and the difficulties and cost of travel, many of the schools could not be reached. Then the other duties of the superintendent were heavy and demanded much time and attention. But he thought the inspection of the schools could be made of great value, and asked the assembly to amend the school law so that a deputy superintendent might be employed, to have charge of the office in the absence of the superintendent, and that double the annual allowance of \$500 should be made that officer in order to meet his traveling expenses when visiting schools. As the schools were so scattered, the superintendent could not hope to give them a very close supervision. Besides, his efforts could be more profitably directed to the general management of the schools. As the probate judges, who were by law *ex officio* county superintendents of schools, had no time to devote to such work and no training which fitted them to do it well, the superintendent recommended that the office of county superintendent should be made a separate office, and that the duty of visiting and inspecting all the schools of the county should be made compulsory. He believed that in no department of the public service was supervision more needed than in the schools, and that those of Arizona had reached a point where this matter must be met and solved. Unfortunately the people's representatives were not ready to solve the problem of school supervision thus early

emphasized by Supt. Horton. Nor has much been done since for its solution. One town—Phoenix—now employs a superintendent of schools. In two others—Prescott and Tucson—the principals must devote a large share of their time to teaching, and in other large towns practically no time is allowed the principals for supervision. In the counties having the largest amount of taxable property the separate office of county superintendent has been established, and is now on trial. The office of superintendent of public instruction has lost rather than gained in importance, and a small salary and no appropriation for office or traveling expenses prevent it being sought by able men engaged in school work. The problem of supervision is one of the most pressing matters in education in Arizona to-day. ♦

While Supt. Sherman had the honor of selecting the landed endowment for the university, it was owing to Supt. Horton's persistence that a part of it was finally secured. To him is also due the law of the assembly to prevent any further destruction of the timber, which alone made the land valuable. He, too, saw the advantage likely to result to the Territory from further selections of unoccupied timber land in lieu of the school sections (16 and 36) when they should fall on worthless lands, and urged that steps be taken to get such authority from Congress.

He concluded his estimate of Horton's work in the following language:

Supt. Horton was not a candidate for reelection at the close of his term, and with his retirement from the office the schools of Arizona passed from under the control of the men whose names can be linked with those of Gov. Safford, not only as having matured his policy, but as successful superintendents of public instruction, though not in equal degrees. In addition, both Sherman and Horton, by their ability as principals of the schools of Prescott and Tucson, so commended public schools to their towns and sections that the success of the system was assured. Without such help Gov. Safford, with all his energy and enthusiasm, would have found it difficult to reach the larger success that marked school matters during his second term as governor.¹

¹ In March, 1885, Prof. Horton was appointed by Gov. Tritle as clerk of the county court and clerk of the county of Pima to serve two years. After this office expired he removed to San Carlos, Ariz., and became Indian post trader, where he was killed not long after by an Indian policeman.

Chapter V.

ORGANIZING THE SCHOOL SYSTEM, 1885-1887.

The next period in the history of the Arizona public schools opens with a readjustment of one of the questions of patronage. The law of 1871 had made the governor Territorial superintendent of public instruction *ex officio*. That remained the law until the act of February 14, 1879. This law authorized the governor to appoint a substitute to perform the duties which the law of 1871 had assigned to him, and then provided that in 1880 and thereafter the superintendent should be chosen by the people at the regular election every second year. Supt. Sherman, who was appointed by Gov. Frémont in 1879, was chosen by popular vote at the regular election in 1880; and so was Supt. Horton, in 1882, without discussion or challenge. In 1884 Robert Lindley Long was elected. But with the opening of the legislative session of 1885 Gov. Tritle, relying on section 1857 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, in a communication to the council on February 13, 1885, declared that the appointment of the Territorial superintendent of public instruction was a duty which clearly fell within the limits of his prerogatives, but since Mr. Long had already been chosen by the people and had received the certificate of election, he was now formally appointed by Gov. Tritle to fill the office, and his confirmation asked of the council. There was no formal objection to this claim and Mr. Long was confirmed by unanimous vote. During the remainder of the Territorial period the office remained subject to appointment by the governor, to whom, under the law, the right clearly pertained.¹

Of the school situation at this time McCrea says:

By 1885 the school system of Arizona was ready to begin developments along broader lines. * * * It would seem that the time had come not only to mold the school law into more permanent form, but also to add higher institutions of learning, if a self-sufficing Commonwealth was to be built up in the heart of the American desert. Nor was the Territory lacking in financial ability to take a great forward step in education. The assessed valuation of its property in 1884 was over \$30,000,000. Its real value was probably more than double that sum. But the financial condition of the Territory was not so satisfactory. * * * The auditor recommended a considerable increase in taxation, but the governor thought this might be avoided by more efficient methods of taxation and by proper economy. * * * Mining, farming, and stock raising were all making great progress in the Territory, which enjoyed

¹ Legislative Jour., Arizona, 1885, pp. 423-24.

a prosperity not shared in by the country as a whole. It was under such conditions that the legislative assembly convened in 1885. In its work for education no other assembly bears comparison with it except that of 1871, when the school system was brought into existence and given a definite form.¹

In his message to the assembly of that year, Gov. Tritel urged that the office of county superintendent be made distinct from that of probate judge; that the discretion of school trustees be limited and that some improvement be made in the levying of school taxes. He urged also that Congress grant authority to sell the sixteenth sections, but no authority to lease these lands was asked. McCrea has pointed out that a request for power to lease might have brought a favorable response and produced a handsome revenue for the schools. He remarks also that the assembly of 1885 made a larger appropriation for the work of the superintendent than had ever been made before. This was \$6,700 for two years.

One marked characteristic of Arizona from 1871 to the time now under consideration was the evolutionary character of the school law. Beginning with the law of 1871, there had been no sudden or violent change in the characteristics of the law. The first draft contained only the more essential elements of a school system. Then came revisions and extensions in 1873, 1875, 1879, 1883, and again in 1885. During all this period there was little deviation from the normal. The law was extended, developed, and revised to conform more nearly to new conditions. There was no violent change in the system. It can be accurately said that while more inclusive the law of 1885, and that of 1887, which appears as its final form, was only the act of 1871 writ large. The law of 1885 goes into great detail and defines with minute exactness the duties of the various branches of the school service; little was left to the imagination or to chance.

The main alterations and additions which differentiate the law of 1885 from earlier ones, together with the further perfected forms as seen in the law of 1887, are summarized in the section which follows.

I. THE SCHOOL LAWS OF 1885 AND 1887.

Like the school law of 1883, that passed on March 12, 1885, has the merit of being a serious detailed codification and revisal of the body of the school law. It was rearranged, improved, pruned, and added to.

The power and duties of the Territorial board of education are defined; the old Territorial certificates were revoked; and under the new law "Territorial educational diplomas" were given only to those who had held a first-grade Territorial or county certificate for a year and had taught for at least 5 years, while the "life diploma" now required 10 years of teaching instead of 5.

¹ McCrea, *loc. cit.*, p. 119.

An entirely new feature, the Territorial board of examiners, consisting of the superintendent of public instruction and two competent persons appointed by him, was created and its duties defined. Its main duty was to prepare questions for the use of county boards of examiners, to grant recommendations for life and educational diplomas, grant Territorial diplomas, etc., and fix rules governing the same. For a first-grade Territorial certificate good for four years the applicant was required to pass on algebra, physiology, natural philosophy, geography, history, and Constitution of the United States, orthography, defining, penmanship, reading, method of teaching, grammar, arithmetic, and the school laws of Arizona. Applicants for the second-grade certificate, good for three years, must pass on all the above except the first three—algebra, physiology, and natural philosophy. Normal and life diplomas from other States were accepted as evidences of fitness without examination. Only the Territorial certificate of the first grade gave authority to teach in the grammar schools.

The Territorial superintendent was now given authority "to investigate all accounts of school moneys kept by any Territorial, county, or district officer," and was given also a closer and more direct control over school libraries. The law of 1887 released him from the obligation to visit the counties. It will be noticed, however, that the new control of the money power of the schools greatly increased the superintendent's prestige and power.

The probate judges were continued as ex officio county superintendents, and their salaries as such fixed by law. These ranged from \$600 in Yavapai down to \$300 in Gila, Mohave, and Yuma. The act of 1887 made it \$300 in each county. Their duties were defined minutely and a series of penalties introduced, which ranged from \$25 for failing to visit any school in the county to \$100 for failure to make reports.¹ The duties were detailed and exacting. They included greatly extended power over the county school funds and were evidently more than any single man could manage. For these reasons the county superintendent was permitted to appoint a deputy, but no salary out of the school funds was allowed such deputy.

Teachers' institutes covering a period of from three to five days were permitted by the law of 1885 and required by that of 1887 in counties having 10 or more school districts, and, as under the earlier law, teachers then conducting schools were granted the right to attend without loss of salary. The total expense of such county institutes was not to exceed \$25.

¹The act of 1887 released the county superintendent from the duty of visiting, and the fine for failure to report was reduced one-half.

The superintendent of public instruction was to appoint two persons, who, with the county superintendent, were to constitute the board of county examiners. They met quarterly, examined teachers from questions furnished by the Territorial board, enforced the uniform textbooks, and the course of study in the schools.

Each school district was given corporate powers, and "every county, city, or incorporated town, unless subdivided by proper authority, forms a school district." As in the old law, each new district must have at least 10 school census children who must be at least 2 miles from any schoolhouse. The school district trustees were to be elected, one each year, and their duties were closely and elaborately defined. In Apache and Graham women were not allowed to vote in their election (repealed in 1887). All work was based on the primary and grammar grades, 10 months was counted as a school year, and it was now directed that the schools be taught in English. Instruction was required in reading, writing, orthography, arithmetic, geography, grammar, history of the United States, elements of physiology and of bookkeeping (hygiene was added in 1887), industrial drawing, "and such other studies as the Territorial board of education may prescribe, but no such other studies can be pursued to the neglect or exclusion of the studies enumerated." Supplies but not textbooks were furnished free. The section in regard to books and tracts of a sectarian character was retained.

The Territorial tax rate was reduced to 3 cents per \$100 of taxable property and the county rate was made not more than 75 cents on the hundred (law of 1887 went back to the old limitations, between 50 and 80 cents) nor less than a rate necessary to raise funds sufficient to meet the requirements of the law. When the Territorial and county funds were not sufficient to provide buildings and run the schools at least five months, the remainder must be raised by local tax, and if any additional sum was wanted it might, as in the old law, be raised by a two-thirds vote of the taxpayers.

The school money, both Territorial and county, was apportioned by allowing for each teacher, calculating one teacher to 80 children or fraction thereof (changed in 1887 to one teacher for 15 to 50 pupils), the sum of \$500; but in districts where there were between 10 and 15 children only the district received \$400; the law of 1887 gave \$250 to districts with from 5 to 10 children. If any funds remained, they were apportioned to districts with not less than 30 children, and no school was entitled to apportionment that had not maintained a school at least five months during the preceding year. This act,¹ as revised in 1887 and with a few later amendments, remained the school law of Arizona until 1907, when it was again revised.²

¹ Sess. Laws of Arizona, 1885, pp. 138-170; Rev. Stat. of 1887 and School Laws of 1887 (separate). Act of 1887 passed on March 10.

² Law approved Mar. 15, 1901.

Of the law of 1885 and of the particular reasons for some of its main provisions McCrea says:¹

During the time the assembly was in session the school law of 1883 was subjected to a revision from which it emerged in about the shape it has ever since borne. This work was performed by those best qualified to do it well—i. e., by the outgoing [Horton] and incoming [Long] superintendents of public instruction, and the assembly showed its wisdom by framing the law much as suggested by those officers. * * * That the standard of scholarship among teachers might be raised and superior teachers induced to come to the Territory, a Territorial board of examiners was created to supervise the work of the several boards of county examiners and to issue certificates good throughout the Territory upon certain credentials and upon examination papers forwarded to them from the various counties. The credentials upon which certificates could be issued without examination were definitely fixed in the law, also the branches upon which teachers must be examined for certificates. Such things had been too largely left to the discretion of boards of examiners in the past.

This assembly made an effort to arrange a more satisfactory plan of school taxation. As three new institutions had been created which must have buildings and maintenance from Territorial taxation, it was thought best to reduce the Territorial school tax to a nominal figure. With the handsome balances with which every county had closed each of the last two school years the legislature had reason for believing that the new plan for levying the county school tax would relieve the Territory of further responsibility in supporting common schools. Then district taxes might sooner be resorted to to lengthen the term than heretofore, though no such use had been made of the tax in any county during the last two years.

Every school law since that of 1871 had contained provisions against the introduction of tracts or papers of a sectarian character into the public school, also against the teaching of any sectarian doctrine in them. For some reason this was not believed to be drastic enough, and a section was added to the law which provided for revoking teachers' certificates for using in their schools sectarian or denominational books, for teaching in them any sectarian doctrine, or for conducting any religious exercise therein. The lawmakers evidently aimed to relegate all religious teaching to the home and the church. The prohibiting of "religious exercises" in schools has met with strong condemnation from many Protestant church members, but with the variety of religious creeds represented in the Territory it is doubtful whether a better policy could have been found.

For the first time in the Arizona school law there was a recognition of the work of the schools in training the youth for citizenship, and the provision was of such a broad and general character that the criticism on the religious prohibition loses much of its force.

II. THE ADMINISTRATION OF SUPERINTENDENT LONG, 1885-1887.

It is now possible to turn from the law itself to a consideration of its execution and the development of the schools during the period.

The third Territorial superintendent of public instruction of Arizona was Robert Lindley Long, a Pennsylvanian, who had been in Arizona since 1877. He was principal of the public schools of

¹ See McCrea, in Long's Report, 1908, pp. 121-122.

Phoenix in 1879-80 and again in 1890-91; in 1881-1884 he lived in Globe, and held the offices of clerk of the district court and probate judge and ex officio county superintendent of schools of Gila County. In 1884 he was a candidate for the office of Territorial superintendent, and was elected by the people, but as the national administration had gone Democratic it was thought well to make his office a little more secure by giving him an appointment by the governor. He served two years, and was succeeded in 1887 by Charles M. Strauss. In 1888-1890 he was principal of the Territorial normal school at Tempe; in 1899-1902 and 1906-1909 he was again Territorial superintendent. Altogether he filled the office for nearly 10 years, a longer period of service than any other officer has attained.

After assisting in drawing the school bill and putting it through the legislature of 1885 it became Mr. Long's duty to attend to its enforcement and the execution of its provisions.

One of the most important duties that confronted him during the early days of his administration was the organization—perhaps more accurately the reorganization—of the Territorial board of education and the adoption of rules and regulations for the government of the public schools. The Territorial school organization now began to actually control the public schools. Mr. Sherman, the first Territorial superintendent, though nominally at the head of a Territorial system, had contented himself by sticking to his school principalship at Prescott, and had done practically nothing toward bringing the disconnected and independent parts of a Territorial system into union one with another. William B. Horton, the second superintendent, had made a beginning in this direction, but it was not a thing which could be perfected in a single administration, and this was one of the earliest matters to which Supt. Long turned his attention.

His work was to adjust, consolidate, and develop a true Territorial system. This was to be done through the Territorial board of education and a course of study.

Minute and careful rules were drawn by the board for the direction and control of teachers and pupils, hours of study and of recreation, care of schoolrooms and houses, and all similar matters. The use of the texts required by law was rigidly enforced, but there were as yet no free textbooks except that, in certain cases, "books may be furnished to indigent children by the trustees, at the expense of the districts, whenever the teacher shall have certified in writing that the pupil applying is unable to purchase such books." The means of enforcing these directions for teachers and these rules and regulations for pupils were left mainly in the hands of the teachers themselves. The local trustees had general control, but it is well known that they do little. The Territorial superintendent could not possibly make the rounds of all the schools, and was released from the

requirement to do so in 1887; the county superintendent was instructed "to enforce" the laws and regulations, and made visits to the school from time to time, but as he was not required by any law to visit the schools under his jurisdiction after 1887, and as his official duties at the county seat gave him no leisure for such visits, at best his supervision would be at long range and so of little effect. But, nevertheless, this was a beginning of State supervision and represents the preliminary steps in Territorial control. In the same way the board drew up and promulgated rules for the administration of the district-school libraries, which were beginning, under the encouragement of the law, to spring up in the more prosperous and progressive communities. The board did not materially change the course of study; it added to the course such branches as are usually taught in high schools, and authorized the districts with superior facilities to organize high-school classes when there were funds available and pupils to make use of the opportunities offered. The textbooks adopted in 1881, with a single exception, were retained, and texts for teaching the effects of alcohol and narcotics were added. The board of Territorial examiners, created by the law of 1885, was now organized for the first time. It consisted of the superintendent and two other persons appointed by him. Rules and regulations for the use and direction of the county examiners were promulgated, and an examination for the general use of these officers was provided. These examinations were to be held in the counties and the papers were returned to the Territorial board, which issued the diplomas. The old Territorial diplomas were revoked, and now three classes only of diplomas were issued: (1) To those holding diplomas issued in States with educational requirements equal to those in Arizona; (2) to graduates of normal schools; (3) to those passing the Territorial examination.

The superintendent published in his report one of the series of examinations that were set for teachers. It was long and searching in character. It required an extensive acquaintance with primary and secondary work and that the applicant be well prepared for the classroom. The examination was made for the subjects covered in the law, including the school law itself. It made possible the organization and development of high-school work without further machinery whenever pupils were ready to avail themselves of such opportunities and wherever the schools were financially capable of providing them. The primary and grammar courses covered the first seven grades; to this two years of high-school work was to be added.

There is given in this report statistics and an account of the organization of the first Territorial normal school at Tempe, which will be considered in another connection. In his own summary and discussion of the statistics, Mr. Long points out that there were in the

Territory 10,219 children between 6 and 18 years, which was then the school age, and 4,502 between 8 and 14 years, the compulsory age. Of these, 4,974 attended school in 1884-85 and 6,072 in 1885-86. In 1885 there were in addition 1,024 children in private schools. It may be assumed that most of these were Catholic Church schools, as the Protestants generally either accepted the work of the public schools as sufficient or were too weak to organize schools for themselves. Based on the figures for 1884-85, it was thought that perhaps as many as 7,100 children were in school during 1885-86. The average attendance in the public schools was not so satisfactory; in 1884-85 it was 3,226, or 64.9 per cent of the enrollment; and in 1885-86, 3,507, or 57.7 per cent of enrollment.

Twenty-one new districts had been organized, and while some of the new buildings were erected to replace old ones, the majority were in districts where none had existed before. New buildings and their appurtenances cost about \$48,000. The funds to meet these expenses were raised by special taxes and by bond issues.¹ Thirteen primary schools had been evolved into grammar-grade schools, and while the whole number of schools in 1884 was 121, in 1886 it had grown to 150. Through purchase and donations 1,930 books had been secured for the public-school libraries in 1885-86, as against 1,171 volumes in 1884-85. Of the teachers, 86 had first-grade certificates, of whom 25 were employed in the grammar and high school grades, leaving 61 for the primary and grammar grades, showing that about one-half the schools were enjoying the services of first-grade teachers. At the end of his term the superintendent was able to say:

It may be safely asserted the public schools of Arizona are in charge of as competent a body of teachers as can be found anywhere.

The law of 1885 reduced the Territorial tax to 3 cents on the hundred,² and as a result, as Supt. Long says in his report:

Under the present law the cost of maintaining the schools devolves on the counties and is not shared by the Territory at large. * * * The revenue raised by the counties for the support of the schools during the past year, while it nearly equaled the sum obtained in 1884-85 from this source, was inadequate to a maintenance of the schools for the proper length of time. Boards of supervisors in some instances disregarded the estimates upon which the minimum rate of tax is based, as furnished by the superintendents, and in other cases no estimates were furnished, or if made at all, were based on erroneous calculations. As supervisors generally make as small a levy as possible under the law, no result could follow but a scarcity of funds.

¹ In 1885 \$12,000 in bonds was issued for school purposes by Florence, in Pinal County. (Sess. Acts, 1885, ch. 3.) Graham County also issued \$8,000 of bonds (chs. 111 and 112) for the town of Clifton.

² This was possibly brought about indirectly by the act of 1885, which reduced the upper county limit from 80 cents to 75 cents, but the law of 1887 went back to 80 cents. The reduction of the upper limit would undoubtedly suggest the reduction of the rate actually levied.

This falling off in school income in 1885-86 as compared with the previous year was as follows, as given by Long: The amount for 1884-85 was \$144,350.29 and in 1885-86 it was \$114,863.43. The Territorial tax fell from \$22,789.60 to \$10,662.06; the miscellaneous receipts from \$25,292.53 to \$18,760.12; the county tax was off about \$2,000¹ and the gift of \$8,500 for a normal school in 1884-85 was omitted the next year. The total deficit of 1885-86, as compared with 1884-85, was no less than \$29,496.86. But by using the balances that had come over from the full years, and by exercising more carefully the gift of economy, the superintendent was able to carry the schools through the latter year without a deficit, although the total number of schools was increased from 137 to 150 and the total enrollment rose from 4,974 to 6,076. Unfortunately, 22 days were lost from the school term, as compared with the year before, and it is probable that a part of this burden was placed on the shoulders of the teachers, for the salary of men dropped from \$91 to \$80.45, and of women from \$84 to \$76.18. The total expenditures in 1884-85 were \$141,264.83, and in 1885-86, \$144,868.99.²

The school system at this time was becoming highly centralized. The superintendent, the governor, and the Territorial treasurer composed the Territorial board of education; as the other members were ex officio, they would be disposed to leave the active administration of the board to the Territorial superintendent, who prepared its rules and regulations and its courses of study. The Territorial superintendent and two other members appointed by him composed the Territorial board of examiners, and the superintendent appointed also two of the three members of the county board of examiners. The county superintendents were required to make reports under heavy penalty. This centralizing tendency was negated to a certain extent, however, by the inability of the superintendent to follow up his subordinates with a close supervision. True, certain funds were assigned him for traveling, and he visited the schools when possible; but the funds given were limited in amount (\$500 per year), the territory to be covered was great, and the duties at the capital were becoming all the time more and more important and imperative.

Supt. Long visited each county during each year of his administration and concluded from his observations that the Territory had made progress during the two years in the following particulars: The enrollment and the average daily attendance had largely in-

¹ Under the law of 1879 this tax was 15 cents, and the same under the law of 1883.

² These are the figures given by Long in his report for 1885-86. In the report for 1889-90 figures varying from the above for these same items are given and are followed in the statistical table at the end of this study. The student of school reports is constantly harassed by different sets of figures covering the same items, but conflicting with each other, probably neither being entirely correct.

creased; more and better schoolhouses had been erected and supplied with better furniture and school apparatus; teachers were better qualified, and as a result pupils were better taught; funds were being more judiciously expended; back of all these, public opinion was growing to a more intelligent appreciation of the schools and of their wants.

The school situation as it was then developing must have given much pleasure to the friends of education and enlightenment. The Territorial system had started on an independent career with Sherman in 1879 and had gone its own way with little supervision until 1883. Then came Horton, who was really first to undertake the organization of the Territorial system. He made some progress; the law of 1883 was a step in the right direction; then, in 1885, the old superintendent (Horton) and the new (Long) put their heads together and evolved a still better law, which, under the pressure of actual working conditions, was somewhat modified in 1887. A beginning in high-school work had appeared about 1883. Provisions were made in 1885 for a university and the normal school at Tempe, and the latter began to furnish teachers. The outlines of a complete Territorial system were visible, and in 1885 a uniform course of study was adopted, but was unfortunately soon abandoned. The last year of Long's administration seems to mark the crest of the wave of progress; with the incoming of Strauss retrogression became more and more marked.

There were, however, unquestionably serious drawbacks in the school situation. In the first place, the schools were in politics, and any change in the control of national parties in Washington was felt in the public-school superintendency in Arizona. The result of this was bad. Every governor appointed his own friends to office, and as a result there was a rapid succession of officials, who, however earnest and devoted, were handicapped by inexperience. By the time they had learned their duties they were ready to give way to other untrained men.

Chapter VI.

REACTION AND PROGRESS, 1887-1899.

The period of 12 years between 1887 and 1899 may be characterized as one of retrogression and advance, reaction and progress. This changing condition is evidenced by the number of Territorial superintendents. Between 1887 and 1899 there were five, so that they served on an average only a little over two years each. They were: Charles M. Strauss, chosen by the people at the regular election in 1886, and appointed by Gov. Zulick in January, 1887. He served for two years, and was again appointed to the office in 1889, but a Republican successor to Gov. Zulick was then expected, the council refused to confirm the nomination, and on April 8, 1889, George W. Cheyney, a Pennsylvanian by birth, a mining engineer by profession, and at that time a member of the Territorial council from Cochise County, was lifted into the office by Gov. Wolfley, who had succeeded Gov. Zulick. Strauss, however, was not willing to get out of office and held on until about June, 1890; neither the old superintendent nor the new gave any particular attention to the office. Cheyney drew the salary, but Strauss was later reimbursed by the legislature.¹ Cheyney continued to serve for the term 1891-1893, but the legislature was then in opposition to the governor, and cut Cheyney's salary from \$2,000 to \$750 per year. Frethias J. Netherton was confirmed as his successor on April 13, 1893. He was a native of California, an athlete, a newspaper man, and a schoolmaster. The office of Territorial superintendent was a movable one. Cheyney had conducted its affairs from Tombstone; Netherton now removed it to Mesa City, where he had a business. He was appointed by Gov. Hughes, and went out of office with the governor. His successor was Thomas E. Dalton, who said, in the report for 1895-1897, that he came into office about May 15, 1896. He was a native of St. Lawrence County, N. Y., and a college man. He was a teacher in the Phoenix schools, and when not engaged in the active work of teaching conducted a real estate business there. He had his office as Territorial superintendent in Phoenix and was at the head of the schools about a year. His successor was A. P. Shewman, a lawyer and editor, with an office at Mesa. He served till February 27, 1899, when he in turn gave place to Robert L. Long,

¹ Ex relatione Robert L. Long, ex-superintendent.

who had been superintendent in 1885-1887, and had first started the schools on organized lines.

Of these five superintendents, apparently only two (Netherton and Dalton) had had any experience in educational matters. The others were business men, followers of particular governors, political favorites. They probably did in a school way what they could, but they had no permanent office, no money for traveling, and little salary.¹ It is rather remarkable that the schools in general showed for most of the time, as statistics will prove, a fairly uniform growth.

After this survey of the personal side of the Territorial superintendents during this period, it seems well to summarize the fortunes of the schools somewhat chronologically. In his message to the assembly on January 11, 1887, Gov. Zulick, after reviewing briefly the former years, utters a word of warning:

It is admitted that the permanency of our institutions depends upon the intelligence of the people. Free public schools are the means of diffusing knowledge among the rising generation and preparing the youth of the land to exercise with intelligence the duties of American citizenship when clothed with its cares and responsibilities. Since intelligence elevates communities and restricts crime, and ignorance degrades citizenship and fosters vice, it is our duty, as far as possible, to place within the reach of every child the means for obtaining a good, solid business education. Universities and normal schools are all right and proper, but should not be maintained to the detriment or injury of our public schools, upon the efficiency of which depends the education of the masses.

After pointing out what had been done officially toward the beginning of a normal school and of a university, he made a wise suggestion, which later became and even yet remains to a certain extent the principle of action in Arizona. He said in his conclusion:

I respectfully suggest that, as there are no high schools in the Territory where a scientific course and preparatory course of instruction can be taken to fit our youths to enter college, the normal school and university could be well utilized for this purpose.²

But the recommendations of Gov. Zulick received scant attention in 1887, for a reaction was due. The first manifestation of this reaction came within a month of the meeting of the legislature, when a fight on the public-school system began. On February 7, 1887, A. G. Oliver, member of the lower house from Yavapai, gave notice that he would introduce a bill to abolish the Territorial superintendency, and the passage of this bill was recommended by the committee to which it was referred and of which Oliver was chairman.³

¹ Salary, 1887-1891, \$2,000 per year; 1891-1893, \$750 per year; 1893-1895, \$1,200; 1895-1897, no record seen that any salary was provided; 1897-1899, \$1,200; 1899, \$1,200. In 1889 the \$500 for printing was restored; it appeared again in 1891 and 1893, but not in 1895, 1897, or 1899.

² Jour. Legislative Assembly, 1887, pp. 240-242.

³ Ibid., pp. 361, 375, 385.

The reasons for this action are not clear from the journals, but they are said to have been of a political character.¹

In the fight which followed the superintendency won out; the office was not abolished, but it was shorn of its powers. The superintendent was no longer required to visit the counties and supervise the schools; his allowance for traveling and office expenses and for printing blanks was cut off, and any chance for a general supervision of the schools of the Territory was cut off.

McCrea, in reviewing the situation, remarks that—

All idea of making the superintendent of any signal service to the schools was abandoned, and from this time on no superintendent of public instruction in Arizona has been chosen from the ranks of those actually engaged in teaching, though three out of six have had experience as teachers.²

The new board of education appointed in 1887, none of whom were teachers, also began to get in its work; it amended (1887) the rules and regulations for the government of the schools of the Territory, and its amendments were not always for the best. Some of the old teaching certificates revoked by the former administration were now regranted, and a rule was adopted that practically abandoned corporal punishment. This caused great dissatisfaction among the teachers and was modified in 1890, so that the penalties of the law applied only to those who inflicted excessive or cruel punishment. Still more unsatisfactory was the dropping of the course of study from the requirements. The schools went back to the old system where each teacher worked out a course for himself. It is true that there was still an adopted series of textbooks, but with no fixed course of study it was impossible to make the classes uniform, and no other course was prepared until Long again became superintendent in 1899-1900.

This reaction against the schools in 1887 was doubtless due to the irritation of the people arising in part from causes other than educational. The governor points out in his message of 1887 that the assembly for some years had been wasteful and had been spending more money than had been allowed by Congress. A debt of \$336,817 had been contracted in eight years for roads, bridges, and legislative expenses. Much of this money had been wasted or actually stolen in building the penitentiary and the insane asylum. Says McCrea:

The people were becoming restive under the great burdens of taxation and the wasteful and corrupt management of affairs. In seeking relief they had already begun to retrench on money spent for schools. This is hardly to be wondered at, as salaries and expenses of school officials had wonderfully increased, while the improvement of the schools was not so apparent.³

On the legislative side the situation in 1889 was a period of calm

¹ Ex relatione Robert L. Long, ex-superintendent.

² McCrea, in Long's report, p. 139. This was written in 1902.

³ McCrea, loc. cit., p. 138.

when compared with 1887. Gov. Zulick confined his attention to efforts toward securing from Congress the privilege of selling the school lands, in which he failed, and actual legislation was practically negligible. A compulsory school law was framed, which was substantially a reenactment of the law of 1875, but in 1895-96 it was declared to be null and void by the attorney general, and the Territory was without compulsory legislation until 1899, when a new law, differing but little from those of 1885 and 1889, was enacted.

Supt. Cheyney discussed in his report for 1889-90 the difficulties and tendencies of the period. A question then of much importance was that of providing funds for new schoolhouses. The older custom, begun in 1877 and brought to mature stature in the eighties, was by issuing bonds under special acts. A general act passed in 1891 (ch. 16) made this no longer permissible. Under the new act the district trustees might still issue bonds not to exceed 4 per cent of the assessed value of their property and there must be provisions for a local tax on the property of the district for repayment. In some places the burden of this additional tax was regarded as excessive and resulted in the rental or erection of unsuitable houses and of inadequate accommodations. As a way out of the difficulty Supt. Strauss suggested that the Territory create a Territorial loan and building fund based on the idea of the building and loan associations.

In 1889 four new schoolhouses were erected; in 1890 the number was 15.

At this time the finances of the schools were generally good. The Territorial administrative expenses were paid out of the 3-cent Territorial tax; in the counties the minimum county tax was levied and in all except one a surplus was reported. But the administration of the county school funds was complicated and unsatisfactory, because they were collected and expended by 187 local boards of trustees, 10 county treasurers, 10 county superintendents, and the Territorial superintendent, and all on different plans of accounting. The Territorial superintendent plaintively adds: "The result is inevitable. Confusion reigns, and tabulation of records at given dates as the law contemplates and requires is simply impossible." He recommends, therefore, that a uniform system of record of school moneys be adopted and used and that the Territorial superintendent be required to visit each county at least once a year and audit the records of school moneys in each. He urged that the Territorial superintendent's office be made elective and thought that while the schools had as much money as necessary, the school attendance, being 36.5 per cent only, was less than it should be. He intimates that a stronger compulsory law might be necessary, but points out that many children were so located that attendance was impossible; that in the

towns private and parochial schools drew off a number of pupils, and that the summer heat, early and intense, was one of the main causes of the comparatively short term—about six and one-half months. The salary paid teachers, while falling slightly from year to year, was “equal to if not larger” than that paid elsewhere, while positions in the Territorial schools were “so eagerly sought as to render possible the selection of teachers of the highest grade.” The teachers’ institute, however—

seems to work rather a hardship than a benefit, and is frequently ignored. * * * The conditions in this Territory of distance and inaccessibility are such as to render it well nigh impossible for any excepting those at the county seat to attend. For the same reason it is impossible, with the funds he is permitted to use, for the county superintendent to provide the lecturers whose instruction forms the chief value of an institute. It is a question whether under the circumstances the improvement of the teacher is sufficient to compensate the school for the annual loss of a week’s services, and I recommend that the law be modified in so much as the annual institute is made obligatory.

The superintendent points out that, while the new normal school was intended primarily to provide teachers for the Territorial schools, it was hardly less useful in furnishing “an opportunity for an education at home beyond that possible in the grammar school, and the course of study has been so arranged that the pupil upon completing the grammar school course shall be fitted for entrance to the normal school.” Indeed, this was the first service to which the new institution was put. Before taking prospective teachers into the deeps of professional subjects, it was necessary to give them instruction in secondary subjects.

In his message to the assembly in 1891 Gov. Murphy has much to say on educational matters. He discussed the university, the normal school, and the school laws. He urged that the Territorial superintendent should be again required to visit the counties “and ascertain the true conditions of the schools therein” and urged that the law which prohibited teachers from serving on the county board of examiners was “an absurdity which should be corrected. It is in keeping with a provision that requires doctors to be examined by farmers or lawyers by merchants.” He made an argument against the special privileges given to towns in the matter of textbooks and urged that the rate of taxation be fixed at 30 to 60 cents instead of 60 to 80, as was then the law. He urged also that the Territorial superintendency should be maintained and its duties extended; that the services of the superintendent be made more effective; and that the superintendent “should be a capable and experienced educator.” Bills were introduced to carry the terms of these recommendations into effect, but along with them was another to reduce the salary of the superintendent of public instruction and to attach his office to

the office of county school superintendent of the county wherein the capital of the Territory was situated¹ and another to abolish the Territorial board of examiners.² Fortunately these proposals did not become law.

The actual educational legislation of 1891 may be summarized as follows:

In matters of legislation the assembly was more active than in 1889. Besides a general law authorizing school districts under fixed conditions to issue bonds for building and to liquidate outstanding indebtedness, the law on textbooks was made more rigid and county examiners were forbidden under penalty to give special preparation to any candidates for teachers' examination; a law to establish kindergartens was framed, and also an act to promote the education of the deaf, dumb, and blind, which was to be made a part of the university.

Things must have been making satisfactory progress, for in 1893 Gov. Murphy addressed the assembly in the following high-sounding, if not boastful, language:

The University of Arizona compares favorably with other institutions similar in character throughout the States of the Union. It is thoroughly equipped and is conducted by learned and experienced educators. * * * The normal school of the Territory at Tempe is a highly creditable and deserving educational institution and is popular with the people. * * * Our common school system needs no laudation; its thorough excellence is a reason for pride and congratulation and has great effects in commending the Territory to the approving attention of the older communities of the country.

He again recommends that the duties of the Territorial superintendent be "specifically defined" and that his compensation be made such as would enable him to "give exclusive attention to educational matters; otherwise it would be better to abolish the office."

The legislature at the session of 1893 seemed to take the report of the governor as sufficient and practically let the schools alone. Supplementary agencies created included a Territorial library, to be located in the capitol and governed by a board of curators, with the Territorial secretary as librarian. There was also passed a law looking to a reform school to be located in Coconino County (ch. 81). This law became later the basal act for the northern Territorial normal school at Flagstaff.

There was during the years of Netherton's administration, 1892-93 and 1893-94, nothing unusual or extraordinary to report. There was a gradual extension of educational activity into the field of libraries, normal schools, and kindergartens. An unfavorable symptom was seen in the increase of school indebtedness, and there was

¹ See H. J., 1891, pp. 190, 436.

² Apparently this proposal was not formally introduced, but notice to that effect was given. See C. J., 1891, p. 109.

complaint that the high schools, grammar, and primary school interests were not represented on the Territorial board of education. It was again urged that the powers of the Territorial superintendent be increased so that he might be able to exercise "a more direct supervision over every branch of the public school work." It was recommended that he prepare and prescribe a uniform system of accounts of school moneys and enforce their use; that he visit each county and that his traveling expenses be paid. There was here an effort both to come back to an abandoned custom and at the same time to escape from survivals of the earlier age. Says the Territorial superintendent:

At present the probate judge of each county is ex officio county superintendent of schools. The office is emphatically a political one and is usually filled by men who, though able, honorable, and conscientious, have no special ability in the line of superintending educational affairs. * * * The qualifications for a candidate for the office of county superintendent should be clearly defined and include the clause that he or she must have taught in a public school in this Territory at least two years on a first-grade certificate, and must hold a first-grade certificate or its equivalent at the time of receiving the nomination.

The superintendent suggested also that the requirements proposed for teachers should apply to county examiners, into whose ranks teachers had been admitted by act of 1893. He acknowledged the need of a course of study, but none had been compiled. This was made still more essential by the adoption of a new series of textbooks in 1893. The sentiment for free textbooks was growing. The law relating to school libraries was not flexible enough, for while the authorities might devote 10 per cent of their school income to the library, this was not permitted if there were less than 100 pupils in the district. The districts in which this prohibition of the law applied was where the benefits of a public library were most needed. There were then only 2,891 volumes in school libraries in the Territory.

There was as yet no special law for the organization of high schools, and the superintendent points out that there was in general more or less opposition to their organization in new counties. The necessity for them, however, was becoming more keenly felt. In 1892-93 the number of high-school pupils reported was 188; in 1893-94 the number had increased to 258. The superintendent suggested that a law be passed meeting certain conditions. These conditions were substantially met in the law of 1895 (ch. 32). This law is considered in detail under the subject of high schools.

In 1892 the Arizona Teachers' Association was organized (Dec. 23, 1892), and held its sessions, along with the teachers' institute, at Phoenix. The first officers were Prof. E. L. Storment, Tempe, president; Prof. F. A. Gully, of the university, secretary; and Miss Mamie

Garlic, Tempe, treasurer. The second session was held in Tucson. Its declared objects were improvement of the school system, professional fellowship, and protection. The interest manifested seemed to warrant recognition by the legislature and authorization to outline a course of reading.

The superintendent said that the compulsory law was a dead letter. This failure was apparently because its enforcement was devolved upon too many persons, and no compensation was provided therefor. It was pointed out also that "the formation of so many small school districts is expensive and detrimental in more ways than one." The consolidation of small districts with a controlling board as the trustees were then chosen was recommended as an improvement. Consolidation promised to be less expensive, and it was thought better supervision would follow.

In his message to the assembly in 1895 Gov. Hughes adopted in the main the suggestions of the Territorial superintendent and recommended them in his message. These included the enlargement of the duties of the Territorial superintendent, requiring him to visit each county at least once a year and to audit the accounts of the county superintendent and county treasurer. The representation of all classes of school work on the Territorial board of education and the separation of the office of probate judge and county superintendent were urged.

The governor said further:

The superintendent should be a teacher of experience and hold a valid first-grade certificate, or its equivalent, at the time of his nomination for the office; no increase of salary would be necessary. A restrictive clause, limiting the renewal of certificates would do much toward maintaining a high standard in the teaching force. The Arizona Teachers' Association should be encouraged by legislative enactment. Salaries should be graded according to the experience or efficiency of teachers. * * * A saving of about 40 per cent of the cost of school books could be made by the enactment of a proper law providing for free textbooks. General dissatisfaction exists with the custom of "farming out" teachers' positions. This evil should be prohibited by law.

It should be remarked that while there was discussion and demand that high educational qualifications should attach to the county superintendent, there was neither suggestion nor demand that there should be such for the Territorial superintendent. From the educational point of view any man was good enough. It was a political job, to be filled by the choice of the governor and without any required considerations for the good of the schools themselves. It would seem that it was sometimes the case that men were appointed with few qualifications, or with professions which could in no sense serve as a basis for educational supervision. When the student takes into consideration that the office of Territorial superintendent was always the football of politics and that appointments were made

without reference to the welfare of schools; that the confirmation of individual appointees was rejected to gain political advantage; that the salary of others was cut until the place was no longer attractive; that the superintendents were constantly changing, some resigning, and some being turned out; it becomes a source of wonder that the schools could do as well as they did.

The legislation of 1895 in regard to education was not great in amount but was of some importance. One act was to encourage military instruction in the public schools (ch. 15), and a more important one was that to establish and maintain high schools in the Territory (ch. 32). Another act (ch. 53) provided that there should be levied for the next two years a special tax of two-fifths of a mill for a "normal-school fund." A special tax for the benefit of the university was also levied (ch. 75).

The successor of Supt. Netherton was T. E. Dalton, who first came into office about May 15, 1896. He was formally nominated and confirmed March 2, 1897. He reports "steady progress along all lines of educational effort." He summarizes the statistics for the years 1894-95 and 1895-96, and shows a gratifying increase. He emphasizes the need of a course of study, and points out that the Territorial board was required to—

prescribe and enforce a course of studies in the public schools. As to the advisability of uniform courses of study, there can be no doubt. Why each one of 47 different districts in Maricopa County should have a different course of study there can be no good reason assigned.

When we consider that there are 223 districts in the Territory, and each one pursuing a different course of study and exacting different requirements for the passing from one grade to the next higher, and this changed every time the district changes teachers, the reason becomes more apparent. There should be uniformity, so that if a child has completed the seventh year's work in the country schools and desires to enter the eighth grade in a city school, he will have a standing which will entitle him to enter that grade.

In the matter of the examination of teachers, Supt. Dalton recommended that the county board of examiners be abolished; that the county superintendent examine all applicants and that the papers be forwarded to the Territorial superintendent, who should examine and issue certificates. This would make requirements more uniform and discourage the issuance of low-grade certificates, of which there should be three grades—first, second, and the lowest or third. The Territorial superintendent's office, it was urged, should be strengthened, especially in the matter of supervision. The weakest points in the school system, as the superintendent then saw it, was the want of thoroughness, the overcrowded courses of study, and no definite plan of work. The office itself was handicapped for want of authority, lack of funds for traveling, and no proper power for the regulation and control of the keeping of school accounts. He urged

that the superintendent, who was then appointed by the governor, be elected, and that his salary be increased (at this time it was only \$1,200). He urged that the county superintendency be divided from the office of judge of probate.

The superintendent pointed out that in the anxiety to expend all the funds remaining in the treasury toward the end of the year the committee sometimes fell into extravagance, and this was particularly the case in the buying of charts and library books. The amount of money levied for school purposes was in general equal to the need, but now and then it was necessary to bring a writ against the board of county supervisors to force them to levy a school tax in accord with the report of the county school superintendent.

The tendency to create new school districts with not more than 10 pupils had produced various weak ones, which sometimes lapsed for lack of attendance.

There was little recommendation for distinctive legislation in this report.

Supt. Dalton was renominated for the new term beginning in March, 1897, and continued without opposition, but he seems to have served only about one year in all, when his work was taken over by A. P. Shewman, who published, on January 10, 1899, his report on the work of the superintendent's office for the last two years.

In his message to the assembly in 1897 Gov. Franklin discussed the public schools, quoted extensively from the superintendent's report, and pointed out that the annual cost per capita based on the number of children enrolled in 1895 was \$17.58, and in 1896 it was \$16.34. This was a little higher than Iowa (\$15.58) and some less than New York (\$18.97). When the cost per capita based on attendance was considered, the balance was against Arizona. In 1895 this was \$29.94, and in 1896, \$28.98, while in Iowa it was \$24.50. It was becoming evident that the children of Arizona were not making the best use of their opportunities.

The governor pointed out again the advisability of separating the county superintendent's office from that of probate judge, and now, after many efforts, the school authorities were to see this desire consummated in the larger counties. Chapter 60 of the acts of 1897 provided that in counties of the first class (Maricopa, Yavapai, and Pima) the county superintendent of schools should be a separate officer and should receive \$1,000 a year. In the other counties the situation remained as it was. Special taxes to aid the university and the normal school were laid, and an act was passed (ch. 69), the first of its kind, for leasing school and university lands.

The reports of Territorial Supt. Shewman for the years 1897 and 1898 contain nothing of particular significance. It should be said, however, that the statistics now presented from year to year are in

much better form than earlier ones and carry the clearest evidence that progress was being made along most lines, although this progress was not uniform nor always where most needed. Thus the superintendent says that the Territorial board of education "realized the importance of a uniform course of study" but had been "more or less hampered in its work in that direction because of a lack of funds to pay for printing and distribution." He points out also that because of a lack of funds the school term was only six and one-half months, and recommends that the rate of taxation be raised so as to extend the term "to allow at least eight months' school in each district," but, instead, in 1899 the law was so amended (ch. 56) that for the purposes of fifth and sixth class counties the minimum limit of a five-months' term was reduced to three months.¹ This term was to be uniform and "as far as practicable with equal rights and privilege."

The high-school idea as embodied in the law of 1895 was not making progress. The superintendent discusses further the necessity of a compulsory attendance law. About 25 per cent of the children in the Territory were not even enrolled; of those enrolled the attendance, as the statistics given in the supplementary tables at the end will show, was low; and this failure was due, in the mind of the superintendent, to the lack of real compulsion.

When the period of 12 years from 1887 to 1899 is reviewed as a whole, it appears that there was growth, not with matured, well-directed, intelligent development, but the undirected growth that comes with increasing population and wealth, developing resources and ambition to provide the best possible opportunities for the incoming school population. In 1890 there were 55,734 white persons in the Territory; in 1900 this number had grown to 92,903, indicating an increase of nearly 70 per cent. A large proportion of these immigrants were from States where successful educational systems were already in operation, and they demanded similar privileges for their children in their new homes. They found a system in operation, but it was often the football of politics, often without expert direction, sometimes without direction at all. The schools existed because the children were there and money for schools was available. The system had been organized, and it now rumbled on without particular aid, but with some important developments and a more or less steady growth during the period. Thus in 1886-87 the school population was 10,303; in 1898-99 it was 19,823. The per cent of enrollment stood at 58.6 in 1888-89 and 80.2 in 1898-99; the average attendance based on school population for the same years

¹ This was intended to meet special conditions in Apache County, where the refusal of the Santa Fe Pacific Railroad Co. to pay its taxes for 1898 had brought on a crisis in school affairs. After the trouble was settled the repeal of the law was recommended.

was 34.1 and 47.4 per cent, respectively, and when based on enrollment, 58.9 and 59.1 per cent. When these statistics are studied for the whole period it will be seen that, while there were ups and downs in enrollment and attendance, the general progress was upward. In these matters the Territory during the period compares well with some of the States. The total receipts rose from \$159,956 in 1885-86 to \$295,884 in 1898-99; the total expenditures from \$135,030 to \$241,556 in the same years, and school property from \$176,238 to \$490,504. The schools had increased from 169 to 347; the teachers from 175 to 373. Salaries, however, had fallen from \$81 to \$67.77 per month, this being due in part at least to a general fall in prices; and the school term fell from 143 days to 127 days. Laws had been passed providing for the organization of school libraries and high schools, and some progress had been made on those lines, but in general the schools were going on in the same way in 1898-99 as they were in 1887-88. They needed systematic organization, correlation of parts, and authoritative supervision.

Chapter VII.

FURTHER GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT DURING THE TERRITORIAL PERIOD, 1899-1912.

During the remaining years of Territorial life there were four separate administrative periods, filled by three individuals. These superintendents and their terms of office were:

Robert L. Long, second term, who succeeded A. P. Shewman on February 27, 1899; reappointed March 19, 1901, and served till July 1, 1902, when he resigned.

Nelson G. Layton, July 1, 1902; reappointed January 30, 1903, and resigned January 1, 1906.

Robert L. Long, third term, January 1, 1906, to March 6, 1907; reappointed and served to March 17, 1909.

Kirke T. Moore, appointed March 17, 1909, and served till the admission of the Territory as a State. He was succeeded by Charles O. Case, March 12, 1912.

In the eyes of Gov. Murphy the schools were in excellent condition in 1899. In his message of that year he says:

The university at Tucson and the normal school at Tempe are highly creditable institutions, and of incalculable benefit to the Territory. The managements show a very high order of ability, entirely satisfactory to their patrons. The advantages of an advanced educational system can hardly be overestimated. Our common schools can not be excelled anywhere in the Union.

Since such was thought to be the condition of the schools already, the governor naturally contented himself with what had been accomplished. He failed entirely to make any proposals for a wider usefulness for them.

The first act of this legislature looking to the schools was one enacting a new compulsory school law. This law differed little from the acts of 1875 and 1889. The length of attendance required was 12 weeks, against 16 in 1875; the exemptions were liberal and generous and could be met by almost any person who wanted to keep his children out of school, and while prosecution and fines were demanded against slackers, there were no special funds or special officers provided for its enforcement.

An act making for progress was one "to establish free public libraries and reading rooms." It applied only to cities of over 5,000 inhabitants, and provided for an annual tax (after the proposal had been accepted by a majority of the taxpayers of the city) of not

more than one-half mill on the dollar (5 cents on the hundred) for the purchase of books and other publications and for erecting buildings. The moneys raised by tax or received by gift were to be a distinct fund and were to be controlled by a board of five trustees, who were to organize the library and set its machinery in motion. Under this law the libraries in the cities began a course of development, followed to some extent by those in the smaller country districts.

During the following years library progress was not satisfactory, however, for the library expenditure of money was confined to districts with more than 100 census children. The expenditures in 1906-7 were \$787.43, and \$963.02 in 1907-8. In all, 6,084 books were added during the two years, a part coming from donations and others being purchased out of the proceeds of entertainments given by teachers and pupils in the smaller schools. The superintendent then recommended that the library allowance be changed from the \$50 per year then allowed to the larger districts to \$100 per year, and that the smaller districts at that time receiving nothing for libraries be permitted to spend 5 per cent of their income for that purpose.

This development may be presented statistically as follows, so far as their progress is shown by the reports:

Growth and value of school libraries.

Years.	Amount expended.	Number of volumes.	Value of libraries.
1888-89.....	\$169.00		
1889-90.....	184.00		
1894-95.....	667.93		
1895-96.....	732.22		
1896-97.....	246.61		
1897-98 ¹	2,181.51		
1898-99.....	286.79		
1899-1900.....	477.59		
1900-1901.....	366.46	9,922	
1901-2.....	357.55	11,636	
1902-3.....	433.41	15,566	
1903-4.....	477.03	16,319	
1904-5.....		17,505	\$14,358
1905-6.....		18,291	16,585
1906-7.....	787.43	19,999	17,724
1907-8.....	963.02	24,265	19,467
1910-11.....		32,018	
1911-12.....		30,493	24,959
1912-13.....		32,941	
1913-14.....		36,121	26,664
1914-15.....		43,126	
1915-16.....		42,808	

¹ Includes items expended for other purposes.

The Howell code of 1864 had provided for a Territorial library. The law governing that institution was amended from time to time. By chapter 62, session of 1915, the State library was to establish a law and legislative bureau. The State librarian was to be its director, form a collection of State newspapers, and make a biennial report.

I. SECONDARY ADMINISTRATION OF ROBERT L. LONG, 1889-1902.

On February 27, 1899, Mr. Robert Lindley Long, who had been superintendent in 1885-1887, was again nominated and confirmed as Territorial superintendent. To him as much as to any other man the

real organization of the system in 1885 was due. He had then been colaborer with William B. Horton in organizing the school system of the Territory. Before their day there had indeed been public schools in Arizona and even a Territorial superintendent, but there had been no real public school system. During the years between 1883 and 1887 it was the work of these two men to coordinate the independent and more or less disjointed units which had been growing up throughout the Territory and organize them into a single working whole. This was done by drafting a single body of school law applicable to the whole Territory, by preparing a course of study under which it was possible to grade the schools, and by laying the foundations for systematizing the work of teacher training by developing and leading the sentiment looking to the organization and endowment of the normal school at Tempe and the State university at Tucson; and now, after an interval of 12 years, Mr. Long came again into office to resume the interrupted thread of work.

In his report submitted in October, 1900, he mentions the organization of 13 new school districts during 1899 and 1900, and from this small number concludes that the smaller settlements then had school facilities "equal to those enjoyed by the more populous sections of the Territory." This was approximately true. The schools had increased from 347 in 1898 to 399 in 1900, and 10 schools had been advanced from the rank of primary to that of the grammar grades. There were now 122 grammar schools, and 21 new school buildings had been erected. There was, however, as yet only one high school organized under the law of 1895. This was at Phoenix, in which three courses, Latin, English, and business, had been provided. The first two were four-year courses, the third a three-year course.

The poll tax was falling off, possibly because of the failure of collectors in enforcing the law. The situation of the county school superintendents was not satisfactory, for those in the larger counties—Yavapai, Maricopa, and Pima—while receiving \$1,000 each for their services, were required to visit their schools twice a year and at the end had paid out three-fourths of their salary as traveling expenses, and so really received less than those in the more thinly settled counties, where the salary was \$300 per year only.

For the first time in the history of Arizona the superintendent prints reports from the individual counties, so that we have detailed reviews of the working of the system in the smaller units, which show in general a steady development. Supt. Long now emphasized the work of the county institutes. The law required them to be held for three days only in the strongest counties, while the union of two or more counties was permitted in other cases. Institutes were held in all counties but four, and these were sparsely settled. As it was, some of the teachers traveled 100 miles to attend and in one instance

as much as 250 miles. Notwithstanding these difficulties the meetings were well attended, the programs were well filled, and much interest was manifested. It would appear that they were now becoming of real value to the system and had already contributed to the organization of the teaching forces.

As if taking up the school question where he had dropped it 12 years before, Supt. Long again turned his attention to the course of study which had been originally outlined and put into use during his earlier administration, in 1885-1887, but abandoned under Strauss. From that time to 1899 the schools had gone on their uneven and creaking way without rudder or compass. The new course of study as prepared by Supt. Long was adopted by the board of education on September 26, 1899, and was published and distributed among the teachers. At the same time a course of study for the new Union High School of Maricopa County, at Phoenix, was approved.

The examination questions for the use of the county boards of examiners were prepared quarterly, printed, and forwarded to the proper officers in time for the regular examinations in March, June, September, and December. New rules for the government of the county boards in giving these examinations were now adopted, and the questions themselves were large in number and searching in character. The fact that 277 teachers out of 399 were holding life, educational, or first-grade certificates indicates that the qualifications of teachers were rising. During the two years there were granted 21 educational diplomas, 5 life diplomas, and 18 certificates granted on diplomas, and 27 Territorial certificates.

The development in the growth of statistics during this period shows great progress over earlier years. These are now so complete that they begin to be of real service in a study of the Territory.

Mr. Long was again nominated by Gov. Murphy for the office of superintendent on March 19, 1901, and continued to serve in that capacity until July 1, 1902, when he resigned. Nelson G. Layton was nominated by Gov. Brodie and confirmed as his successor.

II. ADMINISTRATION OF NELSON G. LAYTON, 1902-1906.

Under the system of appointment in use in Arizona the general supervision of the schools was made subject to the whim of the governor every two years, and during the nineteenth century it was customary for each governor to change the school superintendent, in this way subjecting the schools to a succession of new men who, however well disposed and anxious to serve the schools, were hardly through the initiatory stages of office before called on to vacate for another, who began not where they left off but where they began. This constant change was always a cause of serious interruption to the progress of the schools. With the beginning of the present

century, however, the tendency has been toward longer terms of service, with more satisfactory results. Mr. Layton published the report of Mr. Long for the two years ending June 30, 1902, as well as his own report for the period ending June 30, 1904, and Mr. Long returned the compliment by publishing Layton's report for June 30, 1906.

The early part of the period represented by these reports was one of increased and progressive educational legislation. The laws enacted included one raising the school age. They now abandoned the age limit 6 to 18, and went back to 6 to 21. This increase in age had its reflection in the statistics: In 1899-1900 the school population was 20,833; in 1900-1901, the act going into force on April 1, 1901, it was 23,435, or an increase of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The reasons for this extension of the school age are self-evident, and it also appears that the people of the Territory made use of their increased opportunities, for the enrollment in 1899-1900 was 16,504, and in 1901-2, the first year in which the effects of the new law would be fairly felt, it was 19,203, or an absolute increase of 16.3 per cent on the enrollment of 1899-1900; but when these figures are measured in per cents of the school population it is found that in 1899-1900, 79.2 per cent was actually enrolled, while in 1901-2 this had fallen to 76 per cent; further, the average attendance based on enrollment fell from 61.6 per cent to 59.9 per cent, and average attendance based on school population fell from 48.8 per cent to 41.6 per cent. There was a compulsory law in force during these years, but it either did not or could not compel attendance. It was reported by the superintendent that in 1901 there were 5,967 school children who were not even enrolled during the year, and in 1902 this number had grown, in part because of the extended school age, to 7,104. The same loss of motion is shown in the statistics of cost. In 1901 the cost per capita of school population was \$14.63; in 1902 it was \$15.11. During the same period the cost per capita as based on enrollment was \$19.15 and \$19.41, showing that enrollment under the new law was keeping fairly close to that under the old; but when attention is directed to the cost per capita as based on average attendance, it was found to be for 1901 \$30.66, while in 1902 it had run up to \$34.82. In other words, the Territory was paying, because of poor attendance, more than \$2 for every dollar's worth of service that it received. The compulsory law was a delusion and a snare; the Territory was paying out money for schools; the educational feast was spread; but like those in the days of Scripture the ones invited to this marriage feast of education were willing to give an attendance of less than 50 per cent.

In 1901 the assembly repealed the provision for the county board of examiners. This repeal went into effect April 1, 1901, and did

away with county certificates on the expiration of the time for which they were originally granted. The examinations for certificates were still to be given at the county seat and were conducted by the county superintendents. The papers were then forwarded to the Territorial board of examiners for grading. The successful applicant received a Territorial certificate entitling him to teach in any public school in the Territory. Said the superintendent:

By this method a more nearly uniform system of grading and certification is assured, which in my opinion has a tendency to elevate the standard of our public schools to a higher plane.

Rules and regulations making exact provisions for taking these examinations were provided for, but the questions themselves do not appear to be as difficult as those set in the former administration. Graduates of the Territorial normal schools were, on request, granted Territorial certificates without examination.

In his introduction to this period, the superintendent said:

It is with pride that I am able to report the improvement in our system of schools, the keen interest manifested by our people in the education of our future citizens, and the earnest effort on the part of the teachers as a whole in their endeavor to raise our schools to a higher plane.

In 1901 the rate of taxation in the counties for schools was raised from 30 cents to 50 cents on the hundred. By this act the county income was considerably increased, and that year the income from the Territorial school fund was practically doubled, being \$11,458 in 1901 and \$22,951 in 1902; but, on the other hand, the poll tax fell from \$46,554 to \$23,943. The superintendent urged the necessity "of a library of carefully selected books in each school in the Territory."

An act of 1903 revised, defined, and extended somewhat the duties of the Territorial superintendent.¹ He was to superintend the schools, to apportion school funds, and audit the expenditure of the same, whether Territorial, county, or district. He was to prescribe forms and regulations and send them out to teachers and others, publish a biennial report, and print the school laws.

Another act of 1903² permitted the trustees in districts with a population of 1,000 or over, at their discretion, to employ teachers of music and drawing. In 1905 this act was extended to all school districts.³

During this period occurred the World's Fair at St. Louis, in which the schools of the Territory were represented. Specimens of the work done throughout the Territory were collected; these specimens represented the actual work done by the pupils under the prescribed Territorial course of study. Each piece of work bore the

¹ Arizona session laws, 1903, ch. 89.

² *Ibid.*, 1903, ch. 46.

³ *Ibid.*, 1905, ch. 12.

name of the pupil, his age and grade, and name of the school to which he belonged. There were also shown many pictures of school buildings. The exhibit as a whole attracted much attention. Mrs. E. E. Ford, who had the exhibit in charge, reported:

It has been a great surprise to the eastern people to see that we are doing the same work in our Arizona schools that they are doing here in the East. Our work compares most favorably with that of other schools in the same grades, and I have taken the time to examine other work that I might satisfy myself as to the merits of our own. In many cases I realize that our maps, language, work, and drawings are superior to that from many other schools. Many teachers come in to copy and to ask questions about Arizona schools.

The superintendent has only words of praise for the normal schools:

I can say without fear of successful contradiction that the work accomplished by these schools is equal to, and in many instances surpasses, the work done by similar schools in older States and communities.

Of the 457 teachers, 148 had life or educational diplomas, 162 first-grade and 147 second-grade certificates. During the year, out of 168 who took the examinations, 17 received first-grade and 90 second-grade certificates; 108 graduates of the normal schools received diplomas without examination.

During this period a second high school was organized under the act of 1895 and located at Mesa, and a third at Prescott. Since the university and the two normal schools were also doing this class of work, it may be said that there were then six high schools in the Territory, one in the south (university), three in the middle (Union, Mesa, and Tempe), and two in the north (Prescott and Flagstaff).

The dependence of school districts on bonds as a means of building schoolhouses was increasing in importance. The total outstanding bonds in 1900-1902 amounted to \$291,737.84, and in 1902-1904 to \$355,737. The highest and prevailing rate of interest then paid was 7 per cent; in 1903-4 the average was 6 per cent, while the newer bonds were being issued at a rate as low as 5 per cent. They were generally for small amounts, and in 1903-4 were issued by 11 counties.

The whole administration of Supt. Layton may be characterized by saying that it was one of slow but steady and fairly uniform growth. There were no particular developments; the superintendent presented no brilliant or striking administration, but the schools continued to grow and develop in number; the teachers and pupils continued to increase, and the law was coming by slowly cumulating effort to suit itself to the needs of the country. The slow and steady growth made for the constant extension of the schools. The character of this development is brought out clearly in the statistics. There are in these years no separate reports from the counties.

III. THIRD ADMINISTRATION OF ROBERT L. LONG, 1906-1909.

Mr. Layton resigned and was succeeded January 1, 1906, by Mr. Robert L. Long, who then entered upon his third and last term as Territorial superintendent. He was reappointed in 1907 and served till March 17, 1909, completing in his three terms of service a little more than nine years. He published reports for the bienniums of 1905-6 and 1907-8. These appear to be, with two exceptions, the last printed reports issued by the department. It seems unreasonable that the educational report of a great and growing State should be less full and far less available, now that it has attained statehood, than it was in the earlier days of Territorial dependence, but such is the case. Since the report for 1907-8 the State has not maintained the standard of excellence set by the Territory in the matter of reporting on the work actually accomplished.

The 1905 session of the Territorial legislature was not rich in legislation dealing with the schools. Only a few acts were passed. One gave funds to Graham County to restore a schoolhouse at Clifton, destroyed by the flood of February, 1905; another provided for reestablishing schools whose houses had been destroyed by violence like the above, while other acts provided for support of the reform school and for the teaching of manual training and of music and drawing in the schools.

The new superintendent pointed out that the attendance on the schools was still—

wholly voluntary, as the compulsory attendance law is so defective in some of its provisions that all attempts to enforce it have failed. If such a law is deemed necessary, it should compel the attendance of all children between the ages of 6 and 14 years during the entire time the schools are open. Habitual truants should be provided for at the industrial school.

As these remarks would indicate, the attendance was much as it had been in the past. In 1904 and 1905 the enrollment was 74.4 and 76.8 per cent of the school population, and the average attendance as measured on the basis of school population was only 47.4 and 47.7 per cent for these years, respectively; and while this was much better than in some of the States, it was so poor and irregular that the Territory was still paying more than \$2 for every dollar's worth of services received.

In 1905, 10 new buildings were erected; in 1906 there were 12. Some of these were to supply the places of outgrown structures, but most were in new localities. Many were built on the latest and most approved plans, with ample playgrounds and supplied with the best furniture. The house at Douglas cost \$15,000 and that at Bisbee about \$70,000. Tucson paid \$50,000 for a high-school building, and buildings of this character and cost were soon to become relatively common.

In a few instances these structures were erected out of the proceeds of a direct tax, some by shortening the school term; but most of them came out of the proceeds of bond issues. On June 30, 1906, the total outstanding bonds issued for school purposes was \$490,937, with interest varying between 5 and 7 per cent. In many of the grammar grades, classes corresponding in a general way to the first and second high-school years were maintained. These higher classes were supported out of the regular district funds, and numbered 302 pupils in 1905, and 419 in 1906. While they militated against the lower grades, they were authorized by the board of education to meet the practical demands of the small towns which could not support a high school. There were now regularly organized high schools at Prescott, Phoenix, Mesa, Clifton, and Morenci, organized under the law of 1895, and supported entirely by special tax. They followed a regular course of study, which admitted to the University of Arizona. In 1905 they had 332 pupils and in 1906, 342. The income and expenditures in the last year exceeded \$21,480.

Manual training was first permitted in the schools by chapter 20, acts of 1905. This law authorized any school to give instruction in manual training and domestic science, "provided that such subjects can be pursued without excluding or neglecting the subjects previously provided for by law." Districts with 200 children of school age might employ one teacher of these subjects for each 100 pupils in average attendance. These teachers were to be paid out of a special tax levied in the school district. Graduates of manual training or domestic science schools, with at least one year's experience, might be licensed to teach; others must pass such examination on these subjects as the board of education might prescribe.

In the matter of teachers the number was gradually increasing with the demand, and salaries were improving, taking a sudden jump in 1905-6 of \$8.09 over the monthly pay of the year before. The salary of women teachers was not keeping up with that of men, for it increased only \$1.51 per month in three years.

The income of the Territorial school fund was growing. It was based on a 3 cent tax on the \$100 of taxable property; on a tax on insurance companies doing business in the Territory, and on the rentals on school lands, which amounted in 1906 to \$5,800.56. The county funds were also increasing, and the school poll tax demanded of all persons between 21 and 60 years of age, whether citizens or aliens, produced in 1906, \$74,818.

While there was sufficient money for the support of the schools handsomely, it was complained that under the system of distribution then in use—

the small districts were unable to maintain school for 6 months, while the larger ones maintain sessions for 8 or 10 months during the year. It is sug-

gested that the fixed amounts now allowed these schools be increased from \$400 and \$500 to \$500 and \$600, respectively. The same results would be attained if the present allowances to these schools were lowered to \$200 and \$250, and the districts be permitted to share in the apportionments based on the daily attendance, as now made to the other schools.

In this report there is a return to individual statements from the county superintendents which give us an insight into the workings of the school system in its various parts and the difficulties which each was called on to face. Thus, in Apache County the difficulty was racial and linguistic. In some sections Spanish-speaking pupils predominated, and when teachers came into such districts without acquaintance with Spanish little progress was possible. For this reason it was suggested that such teachers be required to have a practical knowledge of Spanish. In Navajo County it was suggested that separate schools be provided for Americans and Mexicans. In Cochise County it was desired that the compulsory age be extended from 14 to 16 years. Gila demanded that the apportionment of school funds be amended. Pima suggested that the laws be so amended as to permit all schools to be open for eight months, which was impossible for the country districts as the law then stood, because of the lack of funds.

The reports from the high and normal schools for these years were extremely satisfactory. They showed a development and growth that was fairly uniform.

The report of the superintendent for 1907-8 was of the same general character as that for the two years preceding. Mr. Long was again appointed superintendent, and the development and growth were of the same character as in the former years. The most marked increase was in the southern counties, and was due to the increased activities in mining interests.

The school law was somewhat amended in 1907, among other matters the compulsory law. This amendment required that every employer of child labor should require proof, under penalty of fine, that any child employed had been duly excused from school attendance; and in case of children unable to read and write English the compulsory period was extended from 14 to 16 years. But, like earlier laws, there was not sufficient machinery by which the requirements of this law might be enforced.

By this same amendment the rule of apportionment was so amended that \$500 was to go to districts with 10 to 20 children (class 1); \$600 to districts with 20 children or more (class 2); and to districts having an average daily attendance of 25 or more (class 3) was to be apportioned "\$25 per capita, upon the average daily attendance in excess of 25 pupils." In addition to the above, schools which increased their average attendance over that of the previous year were

entitled to certain reserve funds, but no district was to be entitled to funds which had not kept its school open for six months during the previous year. The county superintendents were now allowed \$250 per year for traveling expenses, while the office of the Territorial superintendent, hitherto peripatetic in accord with the convenience of the holder, was to be in the capitol and the salary increased to \$2,000. No part of the school funds received from Territorial or county apportionments could be used for the payment of interest or principal of bonds or in the purchase of real estate for school purposes.

The institutes were now allowed for their support 5 per cent of the county funds assigned to education, in addition to the fee of \$2 charged for the teachers' examination for certificate. The institute session was not to exceed five days nor be less than three.

Districts having over 1,000 census children might now employ a supervising principal, and two or more contiguous districts might jointly employ such principal. Small schools with an average attendance of less than eight pupils were to be suspended and the district allowed to lapse.

The Territorial superintendent was under the impression that the compulsory school attendance law as amended in 1907 was responsible for the reduction in school absentees from 19 per cent in 1907 to 16 per cent in 1908. Since that date, if the figures of the superintendent's report are to be relied on, there has been a still further reduction in the absentees. The figures for recent years are by no means complete or uniform, but they show a relative high record of enrollment and average attendance.

Of this situation in 1907-8 the superintendent said:

The bad showing that 5,463 children under 21 years of age were not in school last year is more apparent than real, however. It is well known that a large percentage of pupils, especially boys, leave school to earn a livelihood before they reach the age of 21. Indeed, the average age throughout the country is estimated at 14 years, when pupils quit the public schools. Those who complete the high-school course graduate at about the age of 18. Hence it is manifest that, as the census comprises all pupils between the ages of 6 and 21, it will include many who have not attended school that year but who nevertheless have completed the entire course of study of both the grammar and the high school.

Of the per cents of those out of the public schools during these years it should be said that for the purposes of this study those who were enrolled in private schools are treated the same as if they were not in school at all. The number who actually attended no school in 1906-7 was 6,505, or 19.6 per cent; in 1907-8 it had been reduced to 5,463, or 15.9 per cent; in 1912-13 and 1913-14 the corresponding figures were 8,743 and 10,833, being 18.5 and 20 per cent of the total

school population at that time. In 1914-15 and 1915-16 the figures were 7,246 and 2,814, or 13 per cent and 4.6 per cent entirely out of school.

The remarks of Mr. Long on the compulsory law in 1907-8 apparently serve as accurately for later dates. He then said:

The average daily attendance on the schools shows but little, if any, increase in percentage over preceding years. The compulsory attendance law, though but poorly enforced in many localities, has evidently brought into the schools a large number of children, but there seems to have been difficulty in keeping them in school, as shown by reports of the daily attendance. The law at present is only useful for its moral effect. Perhaps the best inducement, after all, for parents to send their children to school is to convince them that the schools are worth attending. When this has been done there will be no need of compulsory attendance laws, which, at best, are regarded by many as un-American.

The large increase in school population was creating a demand for more school buildings; 8 new ones were erected in 1907 and 29 in 1908. The aggregate cost of these 37 buildings was \$184,000, most of it being expended in the growing cities of the Territory and much of it for high-school facilities. The reapportionment of school funds under the revised law of 1907 increased the school term from 128.4 days in 1907 to 135 days in 1908. This increase was entirely in the small country schools. The cities had already attained to terms of 9 and 10 months.

The city schools as covered in this report show steady development and progress. Most of them had now organized high schools to complete and round out their courses, and these high schools were becoming more and more complete in themselves, and the one in Prescott had been placed on the accredited lists of Michigan, California, and Vassar. Their course, however, had not yet been made uniform and, while they supplied the needs of the larger towns, they had not as yet, with two exceptions only attempted to cater to the more rural population and it was not till about 1914 that the distinctly rural high school appeared.

During this period there was no upheaval nor extensive change in the administration of the schools. No such violent change was needed or desired. Taken as a whole the schools continued their gradual evolution upward; changes were made here and there in the details of administration as necessity seemed to demand. The funds for the smaller county schools were increased to some extent by larger apportionments, and the increased length of term and better schools tended to induce a better attendance of pupils, the teachers were better paid, and perhaps in no other State was there as little trouble in raising the necessary funds as in Arizona. These seem to have been well expended, and the general progress was steadily upward.

IV. ADMINISTRATION OF KIRKE T. MOORE, 1901-1912.

On March 17, 1909, Mr. Long as Territorial superintendent was succeeded by Kirke T. Moore, who continued to hold the reins of office until the Territory became a State. There was during these years little of moment or significance. The schools had been given their peculiar turn and were now developing steadily. There was little educational legislation, but it was of no slight significance. One act provided for uniform courses of study in the normal schools at Tempe and Flagstaff, and these were to be prescribed by the board of education.¹ The training schools provided at the normal schools as part of their regular work were now formally recognized as a part of the public school system.

It was now provided also that negro pupils might be segregated when the proper authorities thought it desirable and the number of such pupils exceeded eight in any school district, provided they were furnished equal accommodations. In the earlier reports there is only one record of negro children—28 in 1883. Later reports begin in 1902-3 and run as follows:

1902-3	-----	129
1903-4	-----	167
1904-5	-----	157
1905-6	-----	171
1906-7	-----	210
1907-8	-----	274

These pupils, scattered throughout the Territory, had been taught with other pupils, but as their numbers increased, an agitation for segregation began. The matter was taken up in the assembly of 1909 and discussed. The bill was vetoed by the governor, but was passed over his veto.² Then it was taken to the courts, coming up on appeal from the third judicial district (Maricopa County), where a suit for injunction had been tried before Judge Edward Kent and granted. The case was taken to the highest court by the school board and is reported as *Dameron, et al., appellants, v. Samuel F. Bayless, appellee*. It is reported in 14 *Arizona*, 180. The constitutionality of the act of 1909 was attacked on the ground that it was "a denial of the equal protection of the law." It was shown that the building used for the negro school was the newest, best constructed, and most sanitary of all the school buildings in the district; that its equipment was equal if not superior to the others and that the pupils received more attention, because the attendance was smaller, than they received in the white schools; and that the course of study was the same. The conclusion of the court was in substance that "equality and not identity of privileges and rights is what is guaranteed to the

¹ Sess. Acts, 1909, ch. 58.

² *Ibid.*, ch. 67.

citizens." The judgment of the lower court was reversed and the case remanded with directions to vacate the injunction and dismiss.¹ No statistics giving later figures on this phase of public school work have been seen.

In November, 1910, the Territorial Teachers' Association appointed a committee, consisting of Kirke T. Moore, the Territorial superintendent; John D. Loper, city superintendent; and A. J. Matthews, superintendent of the Tempe Normal School, to rewrite "the entire school law in order to incorporate the new recommendations and to correct existing ambiguities and irregularities." When the committee first met the proposed State constitution was pending and it was decided to await the completion of the constitution before the school law was taken up, the proposed amendments to the school law being published in the meantime in the *Arizona Journal of Education* for the purpose of information. The ultimate result of these conferences and revisions was the school law as it appeared in the school code of 1913.

Mr. Moore was the last superintendent under the Territorial régime. He was reared in Tucson and was educated at the University of Arizona and at the Leland Stanford, where he took a degree in law. He opened a law office in Tucson and maintained it through a partner while performing the duties of Territorial superintendent of public instruction. He went out of office with the inauguration of the new State officers and returned to the law on March 12, 1912. He had, in the meantime won from his contemporaries the reputation of "a good and faithful officer." The *Arizona Journal of Education* in its issue for October, 1911, says:²

Mr. Moore will have served as superintendent of schools almost three years. During his term of office he has worked with a rare degree of fidelity and has shown great resourcefulness in handling the work with the small equipment of funds that the Territory furnishes. He has brought dignity and business methods to his office and in dealing with the schools he has shown tact and skill. No one has ever brought against him a charge of indifference or neglect, and everywhere he has appeared he has inspired confidence in his fairness and wisdom. While he is not a trained educator, he has still shown knowledge as well as wisdom in his dealings with the schools. He is especially characterized by common sense and good judgment, and those traits go a long way in bringing success anywhere. His management only shows how much of school work can be done by them.

The days preceding statehood also saw the evolution of the latest form of the course of study. This course, proposed and adopted by the Territorial board of education, is much fuller than any of the preceding courses and contains many elaborated suggestions and directions. Special attention was given in its compilation to the prep-

¹ Sec. 14, *Arizona Reports*, 180, July, 1912; and 123 *Pacific Reporter*. See also subdivision II of par. 2179 of Civil Code of 1901.

² Vol. 2, p. 93.

aration of book lists for supplementary reading and reference for pupils and progressive teachers. The course was drawn up to suit the work of graded schools covering eight years of nine months each and toward the realization of which all schools in the Territory were working. The scope of the year's work is stated at the beginning and this is followed by a detailed month by month plan, but the apportionment of the work month by month is suggestive rather than mandatory; the making of individual adjustments was wisely left to principals and teachers. The course was expected to give the more general satisfaction because it was not the work of the board alone, but in reality represents the combined experience and wisdom of some 50 teachers of the Territory. Published in 1910, it was again issued in 1912, and has been since its publication the recognized basis of teaching in the public schools of the Territory and State.

In 1911-12, the last year of the Territorial form of government for Arizona, the statistics indicated the greatest height of prosperity to which the schools had as yet attained. The school population was that year 42,381, of whom 78.6 per cent were enrolled in the public schools, without considering the private enrollment; the average attendance when measured on enrollment amounted to 68.5 per cent, and of the total school population 53.8 per cent were in daily attendance for the term. The average monthly salary of the 895 men and women teachers was \$86.58; there were 814 primary and grammar-grade schools and 16 high schools. The total school property was valued at \$1,845,021. The total funds raised for school purposes were \$1,817,647, of which \$58,308 came from the Territory; \$633,397 from county and local sources; and \$1,125,943 from fines and forfeitures, rents from lands, bonds sold, special taxes, and balances. There was spent for schools in all \$1,321,595, of which \$890,533 went for school maintenance. Surely here was a Territory well capable of entering upon the duties of Statehood.

Chapter VIII.

THE FIRST STATE ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOLS.

By the act of Congress of June 20, 1910, provision was made for the meeting of a constitutional convention in Arizona. This convention was instructed to provide also for the election of officers for the new State. This election was held about December, 1911. The State was admitted into the Union February 14, 1912. The enabling act under which the State was admitted began by declaring for the maintenance of a public school system to be open to all, free from sectarian control, and always conducted in English. Sections 16 and 36 and 2 and 32 of the public land were set aside for an endowment, and while the congressional act of June 20, 1910, expressly declares that the internal improvements act of September 4, 1841, the swamp-lands act of September 28, 1850, and the agricultural act of July 2, 1862, should not apply to Arizona, there was granted in lieu of these and all other donations and in addition to the four sections named above, land for educational purposes, as follows:

Federal grants for education in Arizona.

	Acres.
For the university.....	200,000
For schools and asylums for the deaf, dumb, and the blind.....	100,000
For normal schools.....	200,000
For State charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions.....	100,000
For agricultural and mechanical colleges.....	150,000
For school of mines.....	150,000
For military institutes.....	100,000
For the payment of bonds issued by certain counties, municipalities, and school districts prior to January 1, 1897 ¹	1,000,000

If there should be any surplus after these bonds were paid, it was to be added to the permanent school fund. Thus, in addition to the four sections in each township, there was given to the new State a total of 2,000,000 acres of land (or a total of more than 10,000,000 acres in all), most of which went directly to education, and there was the further promise of the usual 5 per cent of the net sales of public land by the Federal Government after the Territory had become a State. This sum was to be "a permanent and inviolable fund," and

¹In addition to the above, 350,000 acres were given for matters that were only indirectly educational—for legislative, executive, and judicial public buildings, 100,000 acres; for penitentiaries, 100,000 acres; for insane asylums, 100,000 acres; for hospitals for disabled miners, 50,000 acres.

the interest only was to be expended. No mortgage or other incumbrance on any part of these lands "in favor of any person or for any purpose or under any circumstance whatsoever" should ever be paid.

The constitution itself as finally drawn provided for a public-school system and recognized it as including the kindergarten, common, high, normal, and industrial schools, and a university, "which shall include an agricultural college, a school of mines, and such other technical schools as may be essential." The permanent school fund was recognized and reaffirmed; the minimum school term was fixed at six months; and the method of selling the school land and administering the school fund was outlined. The price for irrigated land was fixed at \$25 and of others at \$3, and lands were to be neither sold nor leased except to "the highest and best bidder."

A conservative estimate placed on the value of the school lands by the *Arizona Journal of Education* in December, 1911 (p. 122), credits the land gifts of the Federal Government to the State for educational purposes as of a then value of \$20,000,000.

The new constitution provided that no sectarian instruction should ever be imparted in any school or State educational institution, and that no religious or political test of qualifications should be required as condition of admission to any public educational institution as teacher, student, or pupil. Further than this, the new constitution took the office of State superintendent out of the appointive group and made it an elective one, and since political parties were already organized in the Territory the race for the superintendency in 1911 was made by Prof. Claude D. Jones and Supt. C. O. Case. Mr. Case won and became the first superintendent of public instruction for the new State of Arizona. Mr. Case is a native of Illinois and was educated at Hillsdale College, Mich. He taught in Kansas and then went to California. He came to Arizona in 1889; settled in Phoenix and taught almost continuously for 25 years. He has been superintendent of schools in Globe, Mest, Prescott, and Jerome; he taught English in the Prescott High School; was principal of the high school at Phoenix and organized its commercial department. He is also known by his writings, for he has been a contributor of poems and stories to coast magazines. These have brought favorable criticism and have served to spread abroad the reputation of Arizona schools and teachers.¹

Mr. Case entered upon his duties with the organization of the new State administration March 12, 1912, and upon duties in a field which was not new or unorganized, but it was the privilege of the first State superintendent to take up the subject where his predecessor

¹ *Arizona Journal of Education*, December, p. 123.

had left it and the transition from Territory to State made little difference in the administration of schools. Mr. Case made a preliminary report for the State to the first State legislature; has published two biennial reports, 1913-14 and 1915-16, a perusal of which will indicate the course taken in the development of State education during the more recent years.

Writing in 1914 the superintendent pointed out that for the biennium then reported the public schools had made "commendable progress," and this may well be the characterization of the whole period. The "spirit of interest and progressiveness" was active and the outlay of money was greater than during the Territorial period, but as the superintendent points out, there was not, at this time, final authority for the interpretation of the school law. It was urged that the superintendent of public instruction—

make such interpretations and render such opinions and that these, when given by him and approved by the attorney general of the State, should be held to be correct and final until set aside by a court of competent jurisdiction or by subsequent legislation.

Another phase of the activities of the new school spirit are the efforts now being made to standardize the schools. For this purpose the interests of all parties who are engaged in school work, teachers, trustees, patrons, county superintendents, and others must be brought into a working whole. The school first secures a place on the probationary list when it can make 75 per cent on the standard school points; when a score of 85 per cent has been attained the school has become a standard school, while a grade of 95 per cent puts it down as a superior school. Points counted in this evolution cover school grounds and buildings, teachers, school board, and pupils.

This attempt at standardizing had, no doubt, a good effect on building. During the years just preceding admission as a State there had been little money spent for school buildings. This decline was now more than made good, the expenditures amounting to \$490,000 in 1913-14; to nearly \$600,000 in 1914-15; and to \$469,000 in 1915-16, practically all of these sums being raised by the issue of bonds.

There is a marked tendency in all the schools of the State looking toward making the system of public schools more and more practical. This is shown in the constantly increasing demand for industrial education which is constantly widening the activities of the schools and demanding an increasing share of the public-school funds. The industrial departments in the high schools are doing commendable work on these lines. Some have night schools as well as day schools. In 1911-12 there was paid out of the State school fund to 10 high schools (including the Tempe Normal School) the sum of

\$18,401.18 for vocational work done. Since that date the payments have steadily increased; in 1912-13 there was paid to 16 high schools (including the two normal schools at Tempe and Flagstaff) \$27,495.55; in 1913-14 it was \$36,423.11 to 21 schools; and in 1914-15 \$44,823.89 was paid for the work done in 21 schools. The largest sum was \$2,500, paid to each of 15 institutions; the smallest was \$248.72, paid to the Safford schools.

The provisions under which high schools are paid for work done in agriculture, mining, manual training, domestic science, and other vocational pursuits are based on chapter 80, second special session, laws of 1913, and finally by section 2797 of the school code of 1913 it was provided that normal schools when they had satisfactory rooms and equipment for giving "elementary training in agriculture, mining, manual training, domestic science, or other vocational pursuits" should participate on the same terms as the high schools in the public funds devoted to that purpose.

Another phase of the industrial education of the State is included under the work of the Territorial Industrial School. First provided for in 1893 under the title of "reform school," it led an uncertain existence until 1903, when its name was changed from reform to industrial¹ and its location fixed at Benson. It was then given 1 cent on the hundred for maintenance and 4 cents for improvements. It was reported as in satisfactory condition in 1909 and received that year \$22,000, and the same for 1910, to be raised by what levy might be necessary and expended under direction of the board of control.² Then came an agitation to change the school location; a very unfavorable report was made on its work and surroundings in 1912³ and the agitation culminated in 1913 in an act⁴ for its removal to the abandoned Fort Grant military reservation as soon as water rights could be secured. The State had secured from Congress in 1912 a grant of 2,000 acres of the old military reservation, together with all the improvements.⁵ It was estimated that these improvements, which had originally cost \$500,000, were still worth \$225,000, and while the site was at a distance from the main lines of travel, the altitude, which is about 4,500 feet, the fertility of the soil, and its adaptability to dairying, stock raising, horticulture, and agriculture more than nequaled its disadvantages, and it was thought that the institution should soon become self-sustaining.

But the course of development of this school has not run as smoothly as it was hoped. There has been a rapid change of superintendents, one having proved recreant to his trust, and his successor, while of

¹ Session of 1903, ch. 72.

² Session of 1909, ch. 106.

³ See H. J., 1912, special session, pp. 142-149.

⁴ Laws of 1913, second special session, ch. 23.

⁵ Act of Aug. 13, 1912.

"high integrity and strict morals," disagreed with the board of control on the question of corporal punishment and was dismissed; another increased the running expenses by 72 per cent in a single year, and the State auditor complained that there was a tendency on the part of officials to conceal objectionable occurrences.¹ It is frankly admitted that this is the most expensive of the State institutions, its per capita cost being considerably more than that of some other institutions. It is conceded, however, that its location is not favorable to a creditable showing in this respect, while its smaller enrollment accounts for a part of this increased cost. The cost of the Industrial School, for both maintenance and improvements, has been as follows: 1897, \$279.50; 1902, \$15,375.35; 1903, \$13,868.22; 1904, \$25,482.18; 1907, \$24,086.30; 1908, \$15,129.86; 1911, \$24,642.91; 1912, \$26,768.87; 1913, \$40,520.41; 1914, \$86,088.86; 1915, \$61,568.12; 1916, \$42,445.15.

The State has now also taken over and conducts the education of its deaf, dumb, and blind children. During Territorial days this duty had been performed under contract by institutions in California and Utah, the contract price being \$350 per pupil per year. During these years the annual cost for this service was, as far as the reports of the State auditor show—1900, \$543.90; 1901, \$1,770; 1902, \$1,770; 1903, \$2,337.50; 1904, \$1,500.

When the State took over this work it was located in rented buildings in Tucson. The school opened with 17 pupils. It had its own equipment, but there was little facility for carrying on its work and the school was then in great need of better classrooms, reading rooms, sitting rooms, and a well-equipped library. In 1915-16 there were 26 children in school, which was about half the known defectives in the State. The expenditures in recent years have been—1912, \$1,546; 1913, \$4,544.14; 1914, \$9,610.65; 1915, \$13,987.27; 1916, \$14,983.67.

The rural schools, with a population more than twice as large as that of the urban schools, are now doing work of such vital importance that expert rural supervision is becoming a necessary step "toward equalizing the educational advantages of city and country."² It was in accord with this idea that Dr. Neil was employed as State high-school inspector, but little special work has as yet been done for the grade schools. They are still under the care of the county superintendent, who is, first of all, a politician and sometimes without special qualifications for the more professional duties of his office. In addition to this, he generally has under his control more schools than he

¹ See auditor's reports for 1912, 1913, 1914, and 1915, where there is sharp and vigorous, but nevertheless sound and sane, criticism of this and other institutions. Indeed, quite the best criticism that has been found anywhere of the Arizona public institutions are these incidental notes of J. C. Callaghan, State auditor, 1912-1917.

² The school law of 1913 provided that the county superintendent should apportion to each district "not less than \$35 per capita upon the average daily attendance" as determined in a certain way, but no district was to receive an apportionment of less than \$850.

can properly administer; in some cases he does not devote all of his time to the work and is often without help in performing the routine duties of his office.

Another topic which has agitated the school world of Arizona during recent years is the county unit plan. While there was county organization to a certain extent, the plan offered in this connection meant still more centralization. The superintendent warns that while this might be good it might also be used "for the worst politics and abuse of power." If accepted at all, the superintendent thought that it should be by local option, and he approved the proposal then made to appoint county school commissioners and county school superintendents rather than elect them.

Supt. Case reports that the arrangement of the matter of textbooks was, in general, "fairly satisfactory." The law as revised in 1913 provided for a State-wide furnishing of free textbooks and paid all contingent expenses. When books were adopted the law required them to be used for five years and did not permit that more than one be changed each year. This worked a hardship, for it meant practical adoption each year. Books were loaned to pupils and were required to be fumigated before being reissued. The cost of these books to the State when first adopted in 1913-14 was \$102,033.96. This stood for a total of 368,866 books received during the year and meant a cost of \$2.42 for each child enrolled and \$3.62 for each in average daily attendance. The next year there was paid out \$31,983.16 for 96,745 new books and in 1915-16 a total of \$33,637.60 for 122,424. The sales to pupils and the collection on books lost did not usually equal the contingent expenses of distribution. According to these figures the cost of supplying textbooks the first year after a new adoption was nearly \$2.50 per pupil enrolled, and the cost of maintenance was about 70 cents per enrolled pupil.

The school law of 1913 provided a new section on teachers' pensions. After a service of 25 years as a teacher in the public schools, the State board of education may order and direct that such person be retired and paid an annual pension of \$600 out of the school fund of the State. The faults of this law are said to be in the main those of omission. There is no provision for incapacity during service, for widows or orphans. It provides a straight pension from State sources, but the pension has no relation to the salary previously received. There is demand for a tax to meet the cost of the system. Among the first teachers retired under this law were Miss Elizabeth Post, who taught from 1872 to 1913, and Prof. Charles H. Tully, ex-superintendent of the schools of Tucson and secretary of the old Territorial Teachers' Association.

Besides reviewing the progress which had been made since admission as a State, the superintendent mentions in his report other

objectives not yet attained. These include the question of a school accounting commission. The purpose of this proposal is to secure a higher degree of economy in the administration of State funds. It was urged that such a commission should be created by the assembly, and it should be its duty to unravel and straighten the "unsystematic and haphazard" method used in school accounting.

It was with this state of affairs in mind that the State tax commission took up for discussion in its report for 1914 (pp. 21-22) the question of State taxes for schools. It points out that there was appropriated for education in 1913, \$1,026,407.50 and in 1914, \$1,006,537.50, these sums representing practically 55 per cent of the entire tax levy of the State. The sum thus appropriated for schools in 1914 was \$100,000 greater than the entire appropriations for all purposes in 1911. The primary object in creating this large school fund was said to be (1) to establish a fund for the purchase of free textbooks for all the common schools of the State and (2) for the creation of an additional fund "sufficient in amount so that such counties as Graham and Santa Cruz, having a large school population and at that time a small assessed valuation, could make it possible to maintain their schools for the entire school year."

In other words the State of Arizona does what so many older States do—collects taxes on the basis of property valuation and immediately redistributes them on the basis of school population. The commission remarks that the intent of the law seems to have been that the county levy should decrease in proportion to the amount received from the State; that this has not always been the case; that the tendency has been to consider the sums derived from the State "in the nature of an additional or gratuitous amount to that which had formerly been received from the county," and that in consequence the State money was in part at least lost sight of.

The commission suggests that inasmuch as the textbook fund is now provided for, better results would follow "if a larger proportion of these funds came to the schools direct through the regular county channels."

In another connection the commission pertinently remarks (p. 32):

If the counties individually or in conjunction with the State bought all the school supplies, a saving of at least 25 per cent would be secured to the taxpayer. Generally speaking, the school funds are too loosely handled. No adequate system of accounting for all expenditures is universally enforced or required. No comprehensive compilations of statistics are kept, so that any taxpayer can judge the efficiency or economy of administration. If these defects are cured, present leaks would stop automatically.

Other lines of improvement still to be striven for were, in the opinion and recommendation of the State superintendent: (1) Standardization of schools; (2) certification of teachers; (3) promotion of teachers' and pupils' reading circle work; (4) enlarge-

ment and improvement of school library districts; (5) securing an annual meeting of school boards; (6) other amendments for improving school laws.

Certain other phases of public-school development demanding more attention in this study than they have as yet received include the following subjects:

I. THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT.

Since the organization of the State the question of the office and pay of the county superintendent has been definitely fixed.

It will be recalled that in the early days the duties of the county superintendent were performed by the county judge of probate. For the performance of these duties he received \$100 per year, serving ostensibly as an expense account, but in reality as payment for the supposed performance of the educational duties of the office. Various efforts were made to increase this salary, and other efforts sought to separate the duties of the office of judge of probate from those of county school superintendent. Finally, in 1897, the counties which had attained a valuation of more than \$3,000,000 each—Maricopa, Yavapai, Pima, and Cochise—were erected into what was known as class 1; the offices of probate judge and county superintendent were separated; and the county school superintendent was allowed a salary of \$1,000 per year. Out of this sum he paid his own expenses, and the State superintendent complained that when this had been done he had only \$250 left as salary. The Territory then allowed an extra \$150 for expenses, and in 1907 this was raised to \$250 and the county superintendent was required to visit each school twice during the year under penalty of losing \$10 from his salary for each failure; he was, however, at liberty to deputize as a visitor "some competent person" residing in the neighborhood when the school in question was more than 75 miles from the county seat.¹

In 1909 the salary of the probate judge and ex officio county school superintendent (the offices not being separated in counties of the second class) was fixed at \$1,200, with fees. In counties of the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth classes, this officer as county school superintendent received a salary of \$300 and in addition thereto as probate judge he received fees and such salary as might be fixed by the board of supervisors, not less than \$300 nor more than \$600.²

In 1910 the committee on the revision of the school law purposed that the law be so amended that the counties be divided into three classes with salaries for the county superintendents of \$2,400, \$1,500, and \$1,000 attached. Under this proposed law county superintend-

¹ Laws of Arizona, 1907, ch. 67, p. 100.

² Sess. acts, 1909, ch. 19, p. 40.

ents were excused from visiting schools when a supervising principal was employed.¹

This proposal failed, however, to become a law, and in its stead there was passed in 1912 a law which separated the office in all counties and fixed a schedule of pay for the school superintendents. The 14 counties of the State were divided into 14 classes and payment allowed the county school superintendents as follows:²

Salaries of county superintendents.

Class.	Counties.	Population.	Pay.	Extra allowance for traveling expenses.
1	Maricopa.....	35,000 and over.....	\$2,400	(¹)
2	Cochise.....	25,000 to 35,000.....	2,400	\$250
3	Pima.....	20,000 to 25,000.....	1,500	(²)
4	Yavapai.....	16,000 to 20,000.....	2,000	250
5	Greenlee.....	15,000 to 16,000.....	1,800	(²)
6	Gila.....	10,000 to 15,000.....	2,000	300
7	Graham.....	8,000 to 10,000.....	1,200	150
8	Yuma.....	7,500 to 8,000.....	1,800	(²)
9	Santa Cruz.....	7,000 to 7,500.....	600	250
10	Pinal.....	6,500 to 7,000.....	1,500	250
11	Navajo.....	6,000 to 6,500.....	1,400	(²)
12	Coconino.....	5,500 to 6,000.....	1,500	(²)
13	Mohave.....	4,000 to 5,500.....	900	250
14	Apache.....	Less than 4,000.....	1,000	250

¹ Actual traveling expenses and clerk also allowed at \$100 per month.

² Actual traveling expenses.

³ Actual traveling expenses, and deputy allowed at \$75 per month only while superintendent is away visiting schools.

II. ARIZONA TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The Arizona Teachers' Association, dates from December 23, 1892. It was first organized at Phoenix during the administration of Supt. Netherton, and because of lack of members usually met with one of the county institutes, as their objects were substantially similar. This continued until 1910, when it held its nineteenth annual meeting jointly with the county institute at Douglas. It was estimated that 300 teachers were in attendance at that session, and an interesting program was offered. The principal teachers were from other States, and presented educational doctrines that were "practical, interesting, and suited to the needs of the teachers," or were "wholesome, uplifting, and instructive." But one paper, entitled "Attic Treasures," served to enliven the meeting. This was a caustic criticism of the schools and their present-day methods, a spectacular and impassioned plea against the "more tawdry and showy gargoyles of modern schoolroom practice." It was not pleasing to the leaders. An editorial in the Arizona Journal of Education serves to illustrate the attitude of the various types of teachers. This was the last meeting in which the teachers' association and the county institutes met in joint session.

¹ Arizona Journal of Education, April, 1910, p. 31.

² Sess. acts, 1912, ch. 93.

Taken all in all the proceedings show that the teachers are becoming better organized, that they are grasping more fully the fundamentals of the profession, and that they are broadening in the scope of their vision so as to cover primary, grammar, and high-school grades of instruction, together with the county board's and superintendent's phases of the work.¹

More recent meetings of the association (the 24th session being in 1916) have been held at the University of Arizona, and while not so exciting as that in 1910 have been of service in advancing the general cause of education.² The association at that time also indorsed the survey of schools in the State then about to be taken by the Bureau of Education. A separate survey had been already proposed. The association urged that the minutes of the proceedings of the State board of education be published; that it appoint permanent committees for the revision of the course of study; that the \$500,000 common-school levy should be made permanent; that a State committee on high-school libraries be appointed with a specified program of duties, to collect information and make recommendations; and that a permanent State educational council be established to regulate and improve the course of study, adopt textbooks, urge constitutional changes, and fix educational policy.

III. EDUCATIONAL JOURNALISM.

During the closing years of Territorial life the teaching profession had also come to feel itself strong enough to establish a professional organ. The first number of the *Arizona Journal of Education* appeared at Phoenix for April, 1910, declaring itself to be "devoted to education in general and to the schools and the cause of education in Arizona in particular." It was to be published five times in the school year and was edited temporarily by T. L. Bolton, with C. L. Phelps and J. F. Hall as business managers. Many of the leading teachers gave their aid, and the journal was devoted to discussions of educational subjects interesting to the profession. The nine numbers published in 1910 and 1911 have been seen. It does not appear that the issues of this periodical extended beyond volume 2, the last number seen being the issue for December, 1911 (vol. 2, No. 4).

The next effort at school journalism was apparently *The Arizona Teacher*, of which the first number seen is that for June, 1914, being volume 1, No. 5. It has been continued since that date, apparently at irregular intervals. It is published at Tucson and the editor is I. Colodny, formerly a teacher in the university. Devoted to the

¹ See program printed in *Arizona Journal of Education*, December, 1910, I, pp. 120-123, and a review of the proceedings in February, 1911.

² See proceedings in *Arizona Teacher*, vol. 5, May, 1916, pp. 8-15.

cause of education in general, it has sought in particular to increase the interest in State history, to standardize schools and improve the condition of teachers; in the last year, however, it seems to have become in the main an opposition organ seeking to overthrow the president of the university and the State superintendent.

IV. SCHOOL SURVEY.

In 1915 a legislative proposal was made looking toward a general survey of the school system of the State.¹ This movement was based on a favorable report looking to the same end recently made by the State Teachers' Association, but as soon as the appropriation in the bill was stricken out, the matter lost its interest to many. The United States Bureau of Education was then called on to undertake this work in connection with the State department of public instruction, and its results are now being published. This survey included the elementary and secondary schools of the cities and rural communities, the State normal and the university, and its purpose was to find out the facts as they are, to report them fairly, to interpret them, and to make constructive suggestions as to improvements in the general administrative school system of the State as a whole. While commending in general the work of the schools as of "high rank, comparing favorably with those of the other States most advanced in education," the survey points out that in the State—

there is lacking the centralized administration necessary if all educational agencies in the State are to be kept in touch with each other and if definite constructive leadership is to be furnished so that State-wide progress will be had without unnecessary delay and expense.

The survey then makes the following summary of its general recommendations:

1. Centralization of the State school system, placing the responsibility of providing equal educational opportunities definitely upon the State board of education and the State department of education working in cooperation with the county boards of education and school district trustees.

2. Reorganization of the State board of education, conferring upon it enlarged powers. It should be composed of seven persons, not necessarily engaged in education, appointed by the governor with the approval of the senate. The term of office should be at least eight years, not more than two terms expiring each biennium. The State superintendent should be its executive officer; all of its duties should be carried out through him.

3. Provision for a nonpolitical State superintendent who shall be the head of an enlarged and more effective State department of education. He should be

¹ There has been at least one county survey—that of Maricopa County—made during 1915-16 and published during the present year (Phoenix [1917], p. 8). This survey was made at the instance of the County Teachers' Association and the Arizona State Taxpayers' Association, and is a strong indictment of the inefficiency of schools as conducted on a district system and strongly recommends the county unit.

selected and appointed by the State board of education for his particular fitness for the position. The department should have, in addition to the State superintendent, at least two general assistants as field agents, also a State school architect, and expert statistician, a chief of division of certification, and one person in charge of textbook distribution.

4. Provision for county control of county school funds through county boards of education and nonpolitical county superintendents. The county is now the unit of support; there should be in each county a county board of education charged with the general management of the schools of the county, composed of five persons not engaged in school work, elected by popular vote, the term of office being at least six years. The board should appoint the county superintendent, who should be its executive officer and the supervisor of all schools except in city districts employing superintendents.

5. Reorganization of the method of apportioning State funds on a basis which recognizes county and local effort. There should be paid to each county approximately \$200 for every teacher employed; whatever remains should be apportioned to the counties on the basis of the aggregate attendance.

6. Requirements for a higher standard of general and professional education for teachers, a revision of the method of certification, establishment of a certification division in the State department of education, which would be also a teachers' employment bureau.

7. Means to encourage the erection of suitable school buildings and to prevent further erection of undesirable ones by having the plans for all school buildings submitted to the State department for approval. The department should employ a school architect.

8. Local school organization should continue, the trustees acting as custodians of the school property, immediate overseers of the school, and agents of the county board. High-school districts and elementary school districts should be made coterminous by consolidating all common-school districts now located in union high-school districts in one district for both elementary and high-school purposes under the same management and control. The high schools, as well as elementary schools, should be supported largely by the State and county funds and should be free from tuition to all pupils of the county.

9. Provision for expert supervision of rural schools. The supervision of the instructional work in all schools outside of those in independent cities employing full-time superintendents should be under the direction of the county superintendent. He should be an able educator, fitted by experience and training, and have adequate office help and assistant supervisors when necessary. He should be selected and appointed by the county board of education and retained in office as long as satisfactory work is done.

10. Reorganization of the method of handling State textbooks to prevent unnecessary losses. There should be one person employed in the State department to devote his entire time to the management of proper care and delivery of textbooks; county superintendents should be responsible for the requisitions submitted. District clerks should be bonded and held responsible for the care and delivery of the books to the school. The cost of textbooks furnished to each county by the State should be deducted from the State funds after apportionment to the counties but before distribution.

11. The two State normal schools should be placed under the control and management of the reorganized State board of education. Also this board should be given the control and management of the State Industrial School. A careful investigation should be made to determine whether a special institution for mental defectives is needed at the present time.

12. The teachers' pension system is not in accordance with pension schemes generally recognized as acceptable. It should be revised.

13. Money for support of the State department, for teachers' pensions, and other special purposes should be provided by direct appropriation and not taken from the State school fund.

V. CITY AND HIGH SCHOOLS.

There has been in Arizona little differentiation between city and other public schools. The city schools have received the favors and privileges which naturally always come to the strongest districts, but have in other respects had a development substantially the same as all other schools. This similarity of all schools in Arizona is due to the conditions of their evolution. In the earlier days city schools were the only ones, for, because of the conditions of settlement, the character of the country itself, and the presence of Indians, settlements were largely made in compact groups; this characteristic was accentuated by the demands of mining, the leading business occupation. The schools were, therefore, first organized in the towns and from them as a center extended to the outlying districts. They form the basis of the statistics from year to year. Each is organized into a single district with its own superintendent and one or more schools, with the taxing power and the authority to issue bonds. While having no history aside from the general history of public schools in the Territory and State, they have led in forward movements. In fact without them it would have been impossible for the history of the public schools to be written, for there would have been no history to write.

The city schools began with the lower grades and evolved their higher grades and their high schools by degrees. In December, 1882, Supt. M. M. Sherman reported that the advanced grade in the Tombstone schools "is prepared for high-school work which it is now doing in part." In the same report Supt. Sherman continued:

Doubtless in the schools of Prescott, Phoenix, and Tucson, as well as in Tombstone, high-school work is being done, but some special encouragement should be given. * * * If in these places were created specially nurtured high schools, in connection with their common-school system, many students throughout the Territory that are now compelled to go abroad would find near at hand, under home influences, the higher education sought.

Indeed, it would appear that the high school was already known at that time in Tucson; for, remarking on these words of Supt. Sherman's report, Mr. McCrea said (pp. 108-9):

While there was no provision in the law for secondary schools, various towns, among them Prescott, Phoenix, Tombstone, and Tucson, had tried to inaugurate high schools. While the school at Tucson was probably larger and more successful than the others, its uncertain foundation is shown by the fact that although such work was begun as early as 1880, but one class was ever graduated, and that not until 1893.

The Territorial report of 1881-82, however, speaks only of "advanced grades" in the Tucson schools, and gives nowhere any indication of the precise degree of advancement. No schools, classified as high schools, are reported in 1885-86, but there is reason to believe that all of the larger cities in the Territory were doing some work of high-school grade, although it was given in small doses and presumably generally counted as a part of the grade work.

In the case of Tucson it was found less necessary to develop the high-school grade because of the preparatory department of the newly organized university, which furnished all the high-school facilities of which the town was able to avail itself. In recent years, as the university becomes stronger and better organized, it has begun to close out its preparatory work, and this in turn is thrown back on the city or other high schools, from which special development may be expected in the near future. This is already becoming visible in some of the cities not only in special high-school work, but in general development and growth. Thus, in the case of Tucson itself, in 1887-88 there was a total of 528 pupils in the whole school; there were 3 buildings and 11 teachers; the property of the district, including library and apparatus, was valued at \$68,425; the receipts from taxes and rents were \$15,333.95, while the total expenditures were \$11,106.14. In 1908-9 the enrollment had increased to 2,160, and the courses offered at that time were 4-year courses in Latin, English, mathematics, and history, with 2-year courses in Spanish and German and in commercial work. By 1909-10 there were 5 ward schools and a high school, and there were employed 53 teachers, 5 principals, and 3 supervisors. In that year the total enrollment was 2,313.

The enrollment in Tucson has steadily increased, necessitating more teachers and more buildings, until in 1915-16 it was 3,139, and there were 6 school buildings and 1 building rented for use as a colored school. There are now (1916-17) 8 principals, 4 supervisors, and 73 teachers, and the enrollment at the end of the sixth month was 3,446. During the summer of 1917 it was expected that a large \$100,000 building would be erected in place of the Safford School, and four 2-room buildings and one 4-room building were to be put up, one of the 2-room buildings to be used as a colored school.

The growth of another selected city school system may be taken to represent the general growth and development of the whole.

The Globe School attained an attendance of 1,362 for the year 1914-15, of whom 1,091 were in the public and 271 in the high school. This system adopted the six-and-six plan at the beginning of 1914. Under this plan the six upper grades, from the seventh to the twelfth, inclusive, are organized as the high school and all work is done on the departmental system.

The idea has met with favor on the part of everyone. The pupils of the two upper grammar grades are thus given an opportunity of enjoying high-school privileges. They have manual training, home economics, spelling, and music with their older companions, and enter into all the school activities with them. This arrangement gives every child a variety of teachers and a chance to progress by subjects rather than by grade. The plan is economical and has saved the district several hundred dollars, as the regular high-school teachers have been able to handle classes in the upper grades.

In 1915-16 the total sum expended for the first six grades was \$37,663.41; in 1916-17, \$47,174.96. The expenditures of the six upper grades, including the high school, were \$26,930.76 and \$25,364.84, respectively. In the high school the daily average attendance was 265.1 and 306.4; the cost per capita, \$99.31 and \$93.96. In the lower grades the average attendance was 859 and 980 and the per capita cost \$44.55 and \$44.66. The estimates for the high school for 1917-18 are \$31,694.50; for the public school, \$76,280.62; total for the public-school system, \$107,975.16.

The public school proper is housed in six buildings, one of which provides a home for colored pupils. The high school has its own building, completed in 1904, and with modern equipment. It has been admitted to membership in the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, a privilege highly appreciated by the high schools of the State.

Because of the location of Globe in a mining section and the evident demand for such instruction, there were established in 1916-17 courses in geology and mineralogy. A collection of specimens for illustration and laboratory use has been begun.

The high school of Douglas offers a special course of study in domestic science and manual training. It printed an outline of the work required in 1914-15.

In Bisbee the board of education is at the present time working toward the six-and-six plan. This will throw the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, now known as intermediate, along with the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth, into the high school. It is intended to build three junior high schools, and there are summer terms for backward and over-age pupils. In these matters Bisbee has been a leader in the State. On September 30, 1916, there were 2,583 pupils enrolled, being a gain of 243 over the corresponding period of 1915. It is planned to divide the school year into four terms of 12 weeks each, with one week's vacation between terms. When graduates of the Bisbee High School are employed as teachers, they have a primary supervisor to help them in planning and supervising their work. Salaries for grade teachers range from \$75 to \$100 for nine months.¹

In the high school itself at Bisbee seven courses are offered—college preparatory, business, art, manual training, domestic science,

¹ *Arizona Teacher*, February, 1917, pp. 15-17.

general, and scientific. Twelve teachers are employed, and a night school is conducted, open to all, and with an enrollment of 267 (1916-17), many of whom are adults, including foreigners. The school has a library of over 2,000 volumes.¹

In the earlier days there was no necessity for differentiating between the various normal parts of a city system. The grammar and high-school grades came up as the different parts of a single whole.

The beginning of differentiation of high schools from the city school of the grades is contained in the remark of Supt. Netherton in 1893-94. In his report for that year he says:

There is always a lack of interest in high-school work in newly settled countries. Not only is there a lack of interest manifested, but strong opposition frequently arises to any effort to provide liberally for the maintenance of high schools. A great many do not seem to appreciate the fact that the high school is one of the rounds of the educational ladder that can not be dispensed with without serious danger to our educational interests. * * *

While I believe that the advantages of a high school are worth more to every citizen than he contributes to its support, owing to the physical character of Arizona there are many isolated and thinly populated sections where it would be impossible to establish high schools, and there is an appearance of injustice in taxing them to support institutions at so great a distance from them that they could not reap any direct advantage therefrom. A system of high schools can be provided for, however, against which these objections will not lie. Pass a law allowing any number of common-school districts to consolidate for the purpose of maintaining a high school, with the consent of a majority of the taxpayers of the districts proposing to unite. Then an annual levy can be made on the property in the high-school district for its maintenance. The school should be free for all residents of the high-school district, and a reasonable tuition fee should be charged for nonresidents. This is a plan that has been successfully tried in California and some of the Eastern States and is as efficient as it is fair. Students can live at home and reap all the advantages of a first-class education, thus saving to the people the expense of transportation to and living expenses at outside institutions.

The legislature responded to this suggestion, and the law relating to high schools, passed in 1895,² provided that any school district of 2,000 or more inhabitants, or any two or more adjoining districts with the necessary population, might unite and form a union high-school district for the purpose of maintaining a high school. They were to elect a board of education of five, who were to have all necessary powers, prescribe the course of study and admit applicants, but there was no provision for special funds other than those to be raised by an annual tax, the amount of which was to be estimated for by the county superintendent, and it was made the duty of the proper authorities to levy the tax asked on the single or union high-school dis-

¹ Arizona Teacher, February, 1917, pp. 15-17.

² Session Acts, 1895, ch. 32. Certain irregularities in the organization of these high-school districts and union high-school districts were cured by ch. 40, second special session, 1913.

trict. It was thus entirely voluntary, and the whole support was to come out of local taxes. This was doubtless the greatest mistake. In the stage of development in which the Arizona schools then were, it is not reasonable to suppose that they would take kindly to district taxation without Territorial support. In fact, this had been their very first experience. The acts of 1867 and 1868 which had placed school support on the local district entirely were a flat failure—no schools were organized.

Of this high-school law and its accomplishments Supt. Shewman said in 1899:

We have had cause to regret the lack of interest in, and, we might say, the opposition to, the establishment of high schools in the Territory. Our law at present is liberal in its encouragement of the organization of high schools, and there are many localities where one would prove of inestimable value to the cause of education. * * * No school system is perfect without the high school. There is a missing link which no other school can supply, unless, indeed, our normal and university must supply the stepping stone by being burdened with a grammar department to supply the course furnished by the high school. There are now in this Territory some high schools existing under the old law and keeping up the course as prescribed under the old law, but there is but one that is recognized as having legal existence under the latest act of the legislative assembly, that at Phoenix. This school is in a most prosperous condition.

The first school organized under the law of 1895 was the Union High School at Phoenix, which had been in course of evolution since 1880. It had even graduated a few pupils and it now entered upon a real course of development. The next high school organized was that of Mesa, Maricopa County, which began work with the session of 1901-2. There were 164 "advanced-grade" pupils reported for 1901 and 151 the next year. In 1904 a third high school was organized at Prescott, in Yavapai County. There were reported in that year 278 pupils in the three high schools, with an average attendance of 218, and with 1,000 volumes in the libraries at Union and Mesa. The three had a total income of \$14,188.44, with a total expenditure of \$13,443.54, of which \$7,182.07 went for the payment of salaries. The statistics to date available are neither continuous, complete, nor uniform; nor are the statistics given by High School Inspector Dr. Neil for 1915-16 as complete as they should be. In the absence of more complete reports the figures are given as they appear in the Territorial and State reports.

High-school statistics, 1895-1916.

Years.	High schools.	Counties with high schools.	Total enrollment.	Average daily attendance.	Length of term in months.	Teachers employed.	Books in library.	Valuation of school property.	Total receipts, including balances.	Total expenditures.
1895-96.....	1	8
1896-97.....	1	1
1897-98.....	1	1
1898-99.....	1	1
1899-1900.....	1	1
1900-1901.....	¹ 164
1901-2.....	² 151
1902-3.....	2	1	² 200
1903-4.....	3	2	278	218	9.0	11	1,000	\$14,188.44	\$13,443.54
1904-5.....	5	3	332	259	8.1	15	1,570	\$70,701	22,789.64	21,755.44
1905-6.....	5	3	342	261	8.8	17	1,640	71,436	21,751.60	21,480.14
1906-7.....	5	3	398	312	8.5	20	1,690	82,275	24,971.82	23,897.71
1907-8.....	8	5	709	543	9.0	32	2,750	111,975	46,587.43	39,233.22
1908-9.....
1909-10.....
1910-11.....	13	1,343	1,087
1911-12.....	16	1,528	1,201
1912-13.....	17	1,824	1,543
1913-14.....	18	2,267	1,773
1914-15.....
1915-16.....	26	12	2,881	242	20,572

¹ This evidently refers to the high-school departments of existing city high schools.

² Number in "advanced grade," probably includes more than the schools organized under the law of 1895.

Brief surveys of the work of some individual high schools may be of interest and service in the absence of any complete general summary covering the whole field. All of them furnish many items of interest to an educator, and some are not without elements of romance.

The Florence High School is adopting some new styles in matters of school architecture. Instead of the conventional front, it has erected a structure in a radial design of the old Spanish mission type. Around a central building used for an assembly hall and school library four wings radiate northwest, northeast, southwest, southeast, with imposing colonnades to east and west. The ventilation and light are excellent, and the classrooms are removed from all the unpleasant but necessary noises of other departments. Three lines of work are offered, college preparatory, scientific, and commercial. A lyceum course is given under the auspices of the two school boards, and in the high school is supplied what the community may lack in the way of civic necessities.¹

The Clarksdale High School, in the Verde-Jerome district in Yavapai County, is a new school, recently organized, with a new building presented by Senator Clark. "The whole work of the school has been planned to meet the direct needs of the smelter town," says one of the teachers, and this purpose has been so liberally interpreted as to make the school and the schoolhouse a very real and very active center of the social activity of the community.²

There is sometimes even something of romance in the history of

¹ Arizona Teacher, January, 1917, p. 9; and February, 1917, p. 20.

² Arizona Teacher, February, 1917, p. 29.

these high schools which brings out in clear relief the devotion of these people to an educational ideal which they have made their own. This is brilliantly illustrated in the history of the high school of Yuma. The Territorial penitentiary was located at Yuma for some years before its removal to larger and more spacious quarters at Florence, leaving its old buildings at Yuma unoccupied. At about the time of this transfer the Yuma High School was being organized, but was without a local habitation (1909). Under the stress of circumstances the high school was conducted in the buildings within the high walls of the old penitentiary. Says the principal:

The class of 1914 is probably the only class in the United States who spent four years in a penitentiary and graduated at the same, receiving their diplomas. From this it seems that Yuma has carried prison reform even beyond the fondest hopes of his excellency, Gov. Hunt.

And one of the local poets has sung:

Queer use to make of this old "pen,"
 Old dungeoned haunt of hate and fear;
 But when all like this can be used like this,
 The millenium will then be here.

The school moved into its new building, costing \$75,000, in 1914. It employs seven teachers and offers courses in Latin, Spanish, French, English, and the sciences, including agriculture and dairy farming, domestic science and domestic art, commercial subjects, history, music, art, and physical culture.

In 1910 the Territorial board of education adopted the following uniform courses of study for the high schools: English, 4 units; mathematics—algebra, $1\frac{1}{2}$ units; geometry, 1 unit; history, 2 units; ancient and modern languages, 2 units; science, 2 units; electives, $3\frac{1}{2}$ units.

A unit was defined as consisting of five periods of 45 minutes each per week for 36 weeks. This course was to become effective September, 1910.¹ In that year commercial courses were reported in Phoenix, Prescott, Jerome, Yuma, Tucson, Tombstone, Globe, and Tempe. The schools of Bisbee and Mesa also had some courses in commercial subjects.

The last report on high schools as a whole is that by Dr. Neil, high-school inspector, for the year 1915-16. It covers 26 schools located in 13 of the 14 counties of the State, Apache County alone being unrepresented. This report includes both classes of high schools, known in other States as city and country high schools. That these classes are less clearly differentiated in Arizona than in the other States is due to the character of the settlements. As water is the chief desideratum in Arizona, settlements must of necessity be within the bounds or reach of running water, hence the tendency to settlement in vil-

¹ Arizona Journal of Education, April, 1910, pp. 22, 38.

lage communities is inevitable. Of the Arizona high schools, three are in villages with about 1,000 inhabitants, 12 are in communities with 2,500 inhabitants or less (counted as rural communities in the census), and 14 are in towns of over 2,500.

Of the list of buildings reported there yet remains one of wood—that at Tombstone erected in 1885. The next oldest is the one at Morenci, built in 1905. The cost has varied from \$260,000 for the house at Phoenix, built in 1911, down to \$8,000 for that at Willcox, built the same year. The total cost of 22 buildings is given as \$1,350,000, or an average of about \$60,000 each. In a majority of cases the houses seem well supplied with rooms, some of them having 24, 25, 30, and that at Phoenix 48 rooms. The heating is in most cases modern—either steam or hot air. Most schools are supplied with some laboratory facilities. Fifteen report such facilities in biology, valued at \$5,570; 24 report laboratories for physics, valued at \$22,650; 22 in chemistry, worth \$13,150; 7 in agriculture, worth \$1,800; 22 report manual training equipment, worth \$47,900; 21 domestic science, worth \$26,050; 23 commercial equipment, worth \$19,700. The term varied between 36 and 40 weeks, with an average of a fraction over 37. Of the 22 buildings reported, 1 was created in 1908, 4 in 1909, 2 in 1911, 3 in 1912, 2 in 1913, 3 in 1914, 2 in 1915, and 3 in 1916, with two others under construction. These dates show clearly that the modern school idea has taken a firm hold on the Arizona mind; and the material used—brick, brick and concrete, or stone in all structures except the oldest—shows that they are planned for a long future. About half of these schools were fortunately abundantly supplied with grounds and 13 had trees.

A detailed study of the teaching force of the Arizona High Schools was undertaken in the spring of 1916 and revealed as it progressed some interesting facts. In this study the faculties of 24 high schools were considered. Of the 208 high-school teachers reported, 141 were holders of bachelors' degrees, including graduates of standard colleges and universities, but excluding normal schools and commercial colleges. This number of college graduates gives a higher proportion than is found in some of the older States, notwithstanding the urgings in this direction of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools; 28 of these teachers held advanced degrees, like A.M. and Ph.D.; 56 had pursued postgraduate studies; 91 had been trained in or graduated from normal schools, 11 in business colleges, and one in a technical school. Nearly half of these teachers were then following courses at summer schools and 84 per cent came into Arizona from without the State, mainly from Illinois and Kansas. The cosmopolitan character of their education is shown by the 153 educational institutions which they represent; about 85 per cent of these teachers got their preliminary experience in other

States which seems to indicate that school officials in Arizona are unwilling to assist in "breaking in" young teachers, and as a consequence young people who are trained for teaching are driven out of it for the beginnings of their actual teaching experience.¹

According to the report of Dr. Neil for 1915-16, there were then 242 high-school teachers at work in the State, of whom 140 were college graduates and 46 normal graduates; 23 libraries contained 20,572 volumes. There were 1,170 first-year pupils; 542, second-year; 786 third-year; 383 fourth-year, of whom 356 graduated. Of these, 111 entered college and 70 entered a normal school. The salaries of teachers varied from \$55 per month, the smallest at Yuma, to \$225 the largest at Phoenix. The cost per capita per pupil varied between \$42.35 at Winslow and \$200 at Douglas. The average cost for 22 schools was \$123.65 per pupil.

The following table, made up from reports furnished to this office shows the condition of the high schools along certain lines not given in detail in Dr. Neil's report.

Statistics of Arizona high schools, 1915-16.

Schools.	Years in course.	Days in session.	Teachers.	Pupils.	Volumes in library.	Value of library.	Total value, school property.	Total income.	Expended for sites, buildings, etc.	Courses given other than academic.
Benson ¹	4	170	6	55	300	\$55,000	4
Bisbee.....	4	180	14	231	1,700	\$2,000	100,000	4
Clarkdale.....	4	200	3	² 23	2,000	3,000	21,000	2
Clifton.....	4	168	8	70	880	750	40,000	4
Douglas.....	4	169	14	238	900	1,200	61,000	\$22,000	\$8,000	4
Duncan ¹	4	170	4	36	50	75	50,800
Florence Union ¹	4	172	8	56	600	800	110,000	3
Glendale.....	4	173	5	107	600	350	52,000	4
Globe ¹	4	180	12	108	550	800	100,000	4,738
Kingman.....	4	180	2	27	150	275	300
Mesa Union.....	4	169	13	203	1,067	600	53,000	20,000	2
Miami Union.....	4	175	3	52	500	600	1
Morenci.....	4	162	2	20	600	1,000	2,000	1
Nogales.....	4	172	4	51	625	800	80,500	51,456	3
Phoenix Union.....	4	165	37	³ 910	900	1,000	265,000	70,449	4
Prescott.....	4	184	8	² 146	1,090	1,368	123,702	20,745	3
Safford ¹	4	172	6	46	471	500	55,000	6,850	55,000
Tempe Union.....	4	170	8	93	1,200	1,200	50,000	1
Tombstone.....	4	170	2	26	150	200	6,500	2,500	2
Tucson.....	4	165	12	283	900	1,200	145,000	18,040	1,000	3
Wilcox.....	4	171	5	68	220	250	11,900	7,500	1,750	3
Winslow.....	4	180	12	112	2,762	3,000	51,000	13,390	4

¹ Statistics for 1916-17.

² Includes 1 colored pupil.

³ Includes 8 colored pupils.

VI. THE NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Normal-school training in Arizona dates from 1885. An act passed on March 12, 1885, appropriated \$5,000 for the erection of suitable buildings and \$3,500 for support of the school for the two years 1885 and 1886. The Territory furnished for a site 20 acres

¹ Arizona Teacher, November, 1916, pp. 16-18.

of land, with water privileges, within half a mile of Tempe, Maricopa County, and 9 miles from Phoenix. Contracts were let for the building at \$6,497 to the lowest responsible bidder, and the completed building was delivered January 11, 1886. Then the trouble began. The governor refused to countersign any warrant for more than \$5,000; a test case was made and argued before the chief justice, but no decision was made at the time; the matter seems to have been dropped, and the balance due was presumably paid later out of the regular income of the institution from the tax of $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents on the hundred given by the same assembly for the erection of buildings and the support of the institution.¹

The first building was 60 by 70 feet, and was entirely surrounded by verandas 10 feet wide; four rooms 30 feet square were then provided. The school was opened February 8, 1886, and placed under the administration of Prof. H. Bradford Farmer. In that year a four months' term was provided, and there were 33 pupils in attendance. Tuition was free to those who intended to teach and to those nominated by a member of the legislature; other persons were charged \$4 per month. The course of study began with elementary work, including reading, writing, geography, and arithmetic, history of United States, and grammar for the first year, and for the second, algebra, natural philosophy, physiology, method, essays, select readings, and declamations. There was an advanced course of three years which covered these subjects and also Latin, analysis, Constitution of the United States, Cæsar, physiology, methods, Cicero, general history, geometry, rhetoric, Virgil, English literature, political economy, history and philosophy of education, essays, etc. On the completion of either of these courses a corresponding diploma was given, entitling the holder to teach in the public schools of the Territory.

It will be noticed that there was little in either of these courses which was professional in character; that the courses differed but little from regular high-school courses; that the first service of this school was evidently to furnish high-school work to such as were advanced enough and financially able to take it, in this way supplying in part the almost total lack of secondary work then in the Territory, for at that date the development of the city high schools had just begun and that of the union high schools was still a long way off.²

For the next 15 years the Tempe Normal School had a somewhat tempestuous career. Always well supported by the Territory in matters financial, it was nevertheless the football of politics and its usefulness was for this reason diminished. Notwithstanding these more

¹ This provision was carried over into the code of 1887.

² See superintendent's report for 1885-86.

or less recurring troubles, the school has constantly grown, has widened and extended its courses, and has now developed into an institution of great merit. This growth is shown by the story of development as told from year to year in the reports of the superintendent and in other sources. The principals during the first 15 years were H. B. Farmer, 1885-1888; Robert L. Long, ex-superintendent of public instruction, 1888-1890; D. A. Reed, 1890, and Edgar L. Storment to 1895; Dr. James McNaughton, 1895-1900; Joseph Warren Smith, 1900-1, when the present principal, Dr. A. J. Matthews, came into office. The first years were marked as a period of slow, steady growth, during which the institution gained definite recognition as a factor in the development of Arizona.¹

In 1889-90 when the school was just fairly getting on its feet its object was declared to be—

that the school shall furnish an opportunity for an education at home beyond that possible in the grammar school, and the course of study has been so arranged that the pupil upon completing the grammar-school course shall be fitted for entrance * * *. The past year has marked a great increase in the efficiency and popularity of the school, there being now in attendance 40 scholars, most of whom are fitting themselves for the vocation of teacher. The greatest need under which the school now labors is some provision for dormitories.

It was also pointed out at this time, 1889-90, that the 2½ cents annual levy given to the normal school was not needed, since more than enough money for its support was reapportioned yearly to the counties out of the school fund.

In 1893, at the end of eight years, it was reported that 295 students had been matriculated and 35 graduated, 15 of whom had become teachers in the Territory. In 1895, or 10 years after organization, the annual matriculation had reached nearly 100, the graduating class numbered 12, and the faculty had increased to 5. The record of matriculation for the preceding five years, including both males and females, was as follows: 1890-91, 54; 1891-92, 76; 1892-93, 87; 1893-94, 91; 1894-95, 94.

The seventeenth assembly (that for 1895) levied a tax of two-fifths of a mill on each dollar of assessed valuation (4 cents on the hundred) to be used in the erection and better maintenance of a normal-school building, which was finished in 1897 at a cost when completed of about \$75,000. In purpose the institution sought to keep up with the development of the Territory and meet the needs of students, and while progress was being made on these lines it was said in 1895-96 that the public schools were as yet in such a condition that both the normal school and the university were still compelled to do grammar grade work.²

¹ See Supt. Long's report for 1906-1908, p. 69.

² Superintendent's report, 1895-96, p. 21.

For the year 1898-99 it was reported that 90 normal graduates were employed in the public schools, and in 1899-1900 the number was 85.

The legislature of 1899 granted an annual tax of $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents on the hundred for the normal-school fund and appropriated \$3,500 to pay the accumulated indebtedness. In its report on the workings of the institution¹ the visiting committee of the trustees for that year considered the development of the school as "worthy of commendation" and then fell into a discussion of the whole subject, which showed the trend of the school itself and of the times:

We desire to call particular attention to the course of study and to most strongly commend the efforts of the trustees in giving a thorough English course. Too many of the young people of America graduate from high schools and colleges with a mere smattering of a practical education. There is an intense desire on the part of such institutions to rush students into Latin, Greek, French, German, higher mathematics, mental and moral science, etc., before they have acquired proficiency in spelling, grammar, rhetoric, geography, the history of our country and our flag, physiology, and those other branches which are usually called "common." It is evident to those who are victims of such mistakes that the normal school at Tempe insists upon a thorough English education before anything else is considered. If in time it is demonstrated that our young men and women come from the public schools very proficient in the common branches, then will be ample time to extend the course to meet their needs. At present the course as outlined is, in our opinion, that which our students need to fit them as teachers, as well as to make them most useful as men and women in any walk in life. We believe that the board has acted wisely in adopting the plan of giving three years to academic work and one year to those branches which belong purely to the professional teacher. The students who find that they are not fitted for teaching, or who desire to adopt some other life course, will have lost no time in the study of methods of teaching, etc. On the other hand, the student who desires to teach is thereby better equipped for the study of purely professional branches in his final year.

By this arrangement the Territory succeeded to an extent in supplying the need of high schools. Those who could afford and had the disposition went to the normal school at Tempe or to the university at Tucson for their academic and high-school courses. In this way the high-school facilities of the Territory were greatly enlarged.

In 1899 a second normal school, located at Flagstaff on the Santa Fe Pacific Railroad and known as the Northern Normal School of Arizona, was organized. The genesis of this institution is interesting. Its beginnings go back to an act passed in 1893 looking to the creation of a school for delinquent boys.

In that year such a school was actually provided by law² and was to be formally known as the Reform School for juvenile offenders. A building for this purpose located at Flagstaff was commenced and

¹ In superintendent's report, 1899-1900, pp. 59-61.

² Laws of Arizona, 1893, ch. 81.

at least \$33,265 spent on the same. It was still unfinished in 1897, when it was given a special tax of 3 cents on the hundred for a building fund. But by this time the people of Flagstaff had come to the conclusion that a reform institution in their midst would be a drawback to their community; so with this idea in mind they set out to persuade the Territorial authorities that it would be cheaper to keep such incorrigible bodys in the proper institutions in California rather than at home. They won their point. Then it became necessary to find use for the unfinished building, and it was determined to make it a branch insane asylum. This was done by chapter 25, acts of 1897, but the people of Flagstaff disliked this plan also, and its use was again changed.

Finally, it was suggested that the building would serve a good purpose as a normal school for the northern half of the Territory, which was at a distance from and inconvenient to the normal school at Tempe. This suggestion was accepted; the act for the asylum passed in 1897 was repealed, and the effort was now begun to develop this new school into an institution of the same grade in all respects as the older one at Tempe, with its diplomas of the same force and effect. Teaching began in 1899, and the committee which visited the school in June, 1900, reported it as in "most excellent condition" and recommended that since there were no high schools in northern Arizona an "academic course" should be added to the more technical and professional work, for "this seems only justice to the boys and girls of northern Arizona." It was not considered wise, however, to introduce manual training into the schools and colleges of the Territory at that time. From the organization and formal opening of the Northern Arizona Normal School at Flagstaff in 1899, the history of the institution and of the Tempe Normal must be told in connection with each other.

The report of the board of visitors on these schools for 1906 is highly satisfactory. The Tempe school was then 20 years of age; it had fortunately passed through most of the period of confusion and political upheaval. It had acquired in 1901 the principal whom it has ever since retained, and in 1906 had reached an enrollment of 243 in the normal school and 177 in the training school, to which an eighth grade was then being added.¹ The legislature of 1905 had given Tempe a 5½ cent building fund, producing \$45,000, of which \$44,274.01 was expended for permanent improvements during the year. The growth of the institution had been "rapid and constant," and while in former years there had been a shortage of books, the library was now said to occupy "a large part of the study room," and was reported to the United States Bureau of Education in 1909

¹The training departments of the normal schools were made a part of the public school system by ch. 87, acts of 1909.

as containing 5,000 volumes and 500 pamphlets. It was estimated that if the then rate of 9 cents on the hundred for maintenance was continued it would be sufficient for maintenance without special assessments for improvements.

In 1907-8 the registration had reached a total of 272 in the normal school and 191 in the training school. There were then 19 in the faculty and the class of 1909 was expected to number 50 or over. Two general courses leading to graduation were maintained—a five-year course for graduates of the grammar schools and a two-year course for graduates of a four-year high-school course. The former course included both academic and professional work, the latter in the main professional work only. It was evident that the normal schools were still needed to supply the lack of high schools. This is seen clearly in the course offered: English, mathematics, science, history and sciences; Latin, Spanish, professional instruction and practice teaching, commercial, drawing, vocal music, manual training, military drill, and physical culture. Students might use this work as a basis of admission to college on the same terms as high-school graduates. The normal-school diploma granted at completion of the course was equivalent to a life diploma in Arizona and was accredited in California and some other States as equivalent to a diploma from their own State normal schools.

Up to the time of this report more than \$300,000 had been invested in this institution.

Since 1908 the school has continued its progressive development. In 1914-15 besides the two courses already mentioned—the two-year professional course for graduates of high schools and the five-year general and professional course for graduates of the grammar schools—there had been added two others—a four years' academic course for graduates of the four-year high-school course who do not expect to teach, and a training school course which embraces all grades of common-school work, from the kindergarten to the eighth grade, inclusive. Special courses to prepare teachers to meet the requirements in particular lines are also given, and since the completion of a \$90,000 building erected for that purpose special attention is given to vocational training.¹ The faculty then numbered 23, but it was pointed out that an increase was necessary if the school was to meet the need of the growing State. The matriculation for 1916-17 was 434 in the normal school and 272 in the training school; the faculty had increased to 32 members; its income was about \$95,000, making the average cost per pupil in the normal

¹ Made possible under ch. 80, second special session, laws of 1913. See also code of 1913, sec. 2797.

classes \$177.42. The total property valuation of the plant was then \$567,000, and it was determined to ask the next legislature for \$110,000 per year.

From Flagstaff it was reported in 1905-6 that that school was still in need of an academic department, "so that such students as desire may be fitted for our Territorial university instead of having to go out of the Territory to secure the necessary instruction." The enrollment during these years had remained low: 33 in 1899-1900; 40 in 1900-1901; 45 in 1902-3 and 1903-4; 59 in 1904-5; and 60 in 1905-6. The cost the first year (1899-1900) was \$5,825.57; in 1905-6, \$13,978.64. The total cost for the seven years of the school is given as \$71,152.05; the number of teachers was at first 2; it rose the second year to 4, and the fifth year to 6, where it remained. There had been in all 42 graduates, or an average of 7 for the six graduating years. It was reported in 1907-8 that that year had been the "most prosperous" of its existence. Its enrollment reached 94, with 64 in the training school, which offered 7 grades of work. There were 12 graduates in 1908, and it had up to that time 49 graduates, of whom 43 had taught in the Territory. Two dormitories had been recently built at a cost of \$50,000, but there was still crying need for liberal appropriations in the near future. A summer term was first offered in 1907. It has since become a permanent part of the school, having 225 pupils in 1916. The regular matriculation began to gain in 1911-12 when it passed the hundred mark and reached 137; in 1916-17 there were 334, and the faculty then numbered 21, but it was reported that the school was still cramped for room in which to work.

The general administration of these schools is under the direction of two distinct but similar boards of three members each; the superintendent of public instruction is a member of each board. The other members of the Tempe Board are two citizens selected from that section by the governor, while those controlling the Flagstaff School come in the same way from that section.

In general the effort was at first made to support the institutions by special taxes laid for their particular benefit, and there has been a tendency toward standardizing the appropriations. The Tempe School was granted in 1885 a tax of $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents on the hundred; this was apparently unchanged until 1893-94, when it was given two-fifths of 1 mill on the dollar, or 4 cents on the hundred of assessed valuation apparently in place of the earlier grant. This was continued in 1895 and 1896; in 1897 and 1898 it was 3 cents; in 1899 and 1900, $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents; in 1903 and 1904, $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents, with a second tax of 4 cents to serve as a basis for a building fund; in 1905 and 1906 it received in all $5\frac{1}{2}$ cents. In each case the auditor was instructed to anticipate the incoming revenue.

The Flagstaff normal school was treated in the same general way, being given, in 1903 and 1904, 3 cents on the hundred for support and 1 cent for building; while in 1905 and 1906 it was given 1½ cents for building. The method of apportioning funds appears to have been changed about 1909, for in that year the Tempe school was given \$80,000 for support for two years without any indication of the rate and the Flagstaff School \$35,000.

In 1909 it was provided by law¹ that the course of study leading to graduation from the two schools should be prescribed by the territorial board of education and after June 30, 1909, be uniform. The two institutions were then neither equal in strength nor in resources, but while the younger school is approximating such a position and while the faculties of the two are not so far apart in numbers, the Tempe School will still be able to offer superior advantages as long as its resources are substantially twice as great. This difference seems not to have been fully realized as yet by the legislative body; for the funds granted the two for the two-year period ending June 30, 1917, were, for Tempe, \$180,000 for support and \$29,000 for buildings and repairs; to Flagstaff, \$80,000 for support and \$97,043 for buildings. Only an equality of resources and equipment can make possible an equality in the results attained.

The annual expenditures of the two schools for maintenance and equipment is, according to the reports of the State auditor as follows:

¹ Sess. Laws of Arizona, 1909, ch. 58.

Expenses of normal schools, 1885-1917.

Year ending June 30.	Normal school at Tempe, maintenance.	Normal school at Flagstaff, maintenance.	Tempe improvements, buildings, etc.	Flagstaff improvements, buildings, etc.
1885-86	\$5,640.10			
1889-90	2,939.69			
1892	3,116.65			
1893				
1894	17,324.72			
1895				
1896				
1897	34,659.33			
1898	10,066.25			
1899	10,822.51	\$993.23		
1900	10,202.39	14,844.34		
1901	15,275.60	7,405.54		
1902	16,675.32	8,527.04		
1903	22,263.10	9,942.69	\$7,287.40	\$13,191.22
1904	29,373.51	18,942.15	20,687.01	290.87
1905				
1906	37,389.29	13,978.64	44,274.01	9,087.31
1907	35,039.66	11,748.35	2,844.20	4,590.62
1908	53,912.22	17,314.72	27,705.97	15,686.60
1909				
1910				
1911	39,160.61	20,022.84	9,009.32	7,367.06
1912	49,950.15	22,086.33	7,299.61	6,097.62
1913	46,809.74	31,283.05	19,595.52	19,830.05
1914	78,970.04	44,116.69	24,053.76	43,695.40
1915	76,605.88	51,702.23	105,358.81	49,445.73
1916	95,386.05	53,721.37	15,234.85	73,658.25
1917	190,000.00	140,000.00	14,500.00	148,521.50

¹ Represents one-half the legislative appropriations for the two years 1916 and 1917.

Chapter IX.

THE SCHOOL LANDS.

The Arizona State land commission, created by an act of the legislature approved May 20, 1912,¹ had its duties outlined by the act as follows:

To ascertain the character and value of the various bodies of land constituting the public land within the State and to recommend to the governor such as might be desirable for selection in satisfaction of the Federal grants to the State.

To personally examine and classify the school and other lands of the State with a view to aiding the legislature in the determination of a State land policy.

To determine the character and value of improvements on school and university lands held under lease prior to the admission of the State.

To grant permits for the continued occupancy of school and university lands held under lease before statehood.

The amendments to this law, passed April 11 and May 16 and 17, 1913,² authorized the commission to care for, sell, or otherwise administer the timber and timber products upon the public lands of the State; to lease any lands not already leased; to take charge of all lands owned by the State except such as are under the specific use and control of State institutions; to prosecute and defend actions, prevent trespass, grant rights of way, and relinquish school lands within national forests settled upon prior to statehood; and to adjust the rights of lessees owning improvements on school or university lands and sell or lease the lands secured under the million-acre grant for the payment of certain county bonds and to select, manage, and dispose of desert lands to be reclaimed under the act of Congress of August 18, 1894, and the acts supplementary thereto known as the Carey land acts.

It follows, therefore, that the administration of the public lands intended for educational purposes was a part of but by no means all of the duties devolving on the commission. This study deals only with the lands devoted to education.

¹ Revised Statutes, 1913, ch. 1, title 43.

² *Ibid.*, ch. 3, title 43; ch. 4, title 43; chs. 1 and 2, title 43.

These lands may be divided into two clearly defined groups:

I. The public-school lands of which sections 16 and 36 were reserved for the use of schools when the Territory was organized (Feb. 24, 1863) and to which sections 2 and 32 were added at the admission of the Territory as a State. The total area of the four sections in each township thus granted for the use of schools is 8,103,680 acres, of which 3,134,555.20 acres were still unsurveyed December 1, 1914, and 1,397,357.59 acres were included in the national forests.

II. The institutional lands granted by Congress at the admission of the State into the Union, amounting to 2,350,000 acres.

I. THE PUBLIC-SCHOOL LANDS.

While sections 16 and 36 were reserved in the act of February 24, 1863, for the use of the public schools, no authority to lease, sell, or administer these lands was given the Territorial authorities until the act of April 7, 1896. The correspondence of the governors with the Secretary of the Interior is full of arguments showing the importance and the necessity of granting such authority. Gov. Safford pointed out that squatters were trespassing on and taking up school lands and asked authority to sell or at any rate to lease. His example and requests were followed in turn by practically every succeeding governor with substantially the same reasons, and all were backed up from time to time by the legislature in passing memorials which showed the utmost anxiety to get their hands on this endowment provided for the coming children of the State. In 1883 and 1884, Gov. Tritle urged that the rights of control conceded to the States might well be granted to the Territories and argued truthfully that being deprived of this source of income meant that the citizens must support their schools by direct taxation, and that this was burdensome. He also urged that provision should be made for the selection of other lands to take the place of the worthless desert that covered many parts of the Territory. He renewed these recommendations in 1884 and 1885.¹ Under the administration of Gov. Zulick permission to sell the school lands was again asked.² Gov. Wolfley urged that settlers were then farming the school lands and paying no revenue and that the needs of the Territory would never be greater. Gov. Hughes estimated in 1895 that the funds from the school lands, if leased, would be from \$75,000 to \$100,000 annually, and so the story goes on to the end of the chapter. The Territory very much wished to get control of its school lands, but in this matter the Congress was fortunately adamant. A deaf ear was turned to all their proposals, and

¹ Report of Governor of Arizona to the Secretary of the Interior for 1883, p. 13; 1884, p. 11; and 1885, p. 17.

² See Report of Governor of Arizona to Secretary of the Interior for 1887, p. 8.

not until the act of April 7, 1896, was the authority given the Territory to even lease the lands.

(a) THE SALT RIVER SCHOOL LANDS.

These lands demand particular consideration because they are the oldest and best known of the school lands and because since the building of the Roosevelt dam—

it is evident that the inclusion of these lands in the Salt River Valley project, their admission to contractual rights in the stored waters of the Roosevelt Dam, while they remain in State ownership, is viewed with disfavor by the United States Government.

In the Salt River Valley reclamation project there are 13,003.59 acres of school land which at the date of statehood were held under lease by 202 lessees. This is the most valuable body of land, of similar area, in the State, and its careful and businesslike administration is of immense importance to the common-school fund. Its appraised value was \$1,257,426.70, with appraised improvements amounting to \$379,343.23. To these figures must be added a body of 1,496 acres of school lands under the Tempe Canal and independent of the Salt River project. This land is worth \$146,975 and the improvements \$42,363.65, making for the two tracts, together with the improvements, a total of \$1,826,108.58, without considering water appropriations and privileges appurtenant to the land.

The occupation of this land by squatters and others dates back in some cases to 1870. As early as 1867 work was begun on some of the ditches, or canals, used in its irrigation. This work was continued and finally came to embrace the Salt, Maricopa, Grand, and Arizona Canals on the north, and the Tempe, Mesa, Utah, High Land, and Consolidated Canals on the south of the river, all of which are now included in the Salt River Valley project. It is estimated that when Congress gave the power of leasing school lands to the Territory in 1896, not less than 4,440 acres on the north side of the Gila and 2,820 acres on the south side were "under cultivation by squatters, who for varying periods had occupied the lands without warrant whatsoever and had enjoyed the fruits thereof without the payment of either rental or taxes."

It thus became necessary that the Territory pass some enactment by which the interests and rights of the schools and of the squatters might be preserved.

The act of April 7, 1896,¹ which finally gave the control of leases to the Territory, provided that the governor, the secretary of state, and the superintendent of public instruction, should, pending the

¹ See U. S. Stat. L., vol. 29, p. 90.

enactment of laws and regulations, act as a board to lease the lands under rules and regulations proposed by the Secretary of the Interior, but there is no indication that they exercised their prerogative in this matter. The Territorial legislature, however, passed an act on March 18, 1897, which provided for the leasing of the school lands. The squatters who had previously occupied them were given a preferred right. In case they failed or refused to lease, and others wished to do so, their improvements were to be appraised in a manner provided by law and paid for by the new lessee. Improvements were described as being—

anything permanent in character, the result of labor or capital expended on such land in its reclamation or development, and the appropriation of water thereon, which has enhanced the value of the same beyond what said land would be worth had it been permitted to remain in its original state.

An addendum to this law enacted since provides that—

anyone making permanent improvements after leasing shall be allowed compensation therefor at the expiration of their lease, or anyone having to surrender their land before the expiration of their lease shall be entitled to all the benefits of this section.¹

These statutes remained the law until statehood, when the first legislature, recognizing the necessity of an "equitable adjustment of the reciprocal rights of the lessee residing on any of said land, and of the State" authorized and directed the issuing of permits for the further occupancy of the school lands held under Territorial lease pending final adjustment. After objection and opposition on the part of some lessees, and up to December 1, 1914, the date of the first report of the State land commission, 133 lessees had complied with the law, while 75 had not.

In the meantime the question of water rights had long since become an exceedingly important one. In early days water was largely a question of individual initiative. Then came the incorporation of the Salt River Valley Canal Co., which took over individual rights and duties and administered matters pertaining to the water supply; in course of time more land was brought under cultivation while the amount of water remained stationary, and as a result the shares of the company which had a par value of \$500 attained a market price of \$5,000 or \$6,000 or even more. But this abnormal condition could not last; dissensions multiplied; suits "for the purpose of establishing the priority of right to the flow of the river, as appurtenant to the land upon which originally appropriated and untransferable," were instituted and culminated in 1910 in what is known as the "Kent decree." By this decree—

¹ The last section of this supplementary act was apparently never invoked.

the order of priority in which each tract of land in Salt River Valley that had been regularly cultivated down to 1905, or to within five years of that time, was entitled to receive the waters of the Salt River, was determined and established.

This decree is of great significance, for it follows—

that lands which could claim the beneficial use of water upon them at a date not later than 1880, and were and are entitled to their proportionate share of the normal flow of the river up to the amount deemed by the Kent decree to be necessary for their proper irrigation, may be considered as having valuable water rights—rights under which they are reasonably assured of ample water during the entire season for the growing of practically any crop. But the lands upon which the application of water appears to have been of a later date must be content with water at such times or during such periods only as the records show the river to have furnished more than was necessary for the user of prior appropriations. They can only hope to be cultivated intermittently, during the season of high normal flow, and their cultivation likely must be confined to crops requiring the least amount of water. Such a right, it is plain, is of comparatively small value.

In the meantime the effort to cultivate more land and the constant demand for the development of more water had brought the United States into the work of permanent reclamation; for washouts came, droughts followed, fields went to waste, and highly improved farms reverted to their desert state until finally the United States Government was petitioned to intervene and save the valley through the national reclamation law enacted in 1903. The United States took over the larger part of the system of canals; old rights were then swept away or surrendered, and all that remained was the priority of right, later legally established by the "Kent decree," accruing and attaching to the land itself and not to any individual, either owner or lessee, to the normal flow of Salt River. These rights, to the extent only that they were dependent upon the river's normal flow, were and are recognized by the United States Reclamation Service, which controls not only the normal flow of the river, but the stored waters of the Roosevelt reservoir. Thus the old monetary values ceased to exist after the advent of the Reclamation Service. This service has indeed proposed that the school lands be denied the right to contract for the stored waters of the Roosevelt reservoir, while individuals have thought that the clause in the reclamation act which provides that "no right to the use of water for land in private ownership shall be sold for a tract exceeding 160 acres to any one landowner," would exclude the school lands altogether, but this view was rejected in the interpretation of the Secretary of the Interior, and the final recommendation in the matter, as reported in 1909 by the Reclamation Commission, was that school lands, both cultivated and uncultivated, were not then to be considered a part of the project at that time, but might be considered as a new unit dependent upon the

development of additional water supply for such lands. As the prospect was for an abundant supply of water from Roosevelt reservoir, it was thought that there would be at least temporarily enough water, but if this was to be permanent it would depend on the development of an additional water supply. But this situation in no case affected the rights which the lands might possess under the Kent decree. The opinion of the commission was that authority should be given for the sale of the lands and that the proceeds should be placed in an inviolable permanent fund, for in their present status the lands are being sadly neglected.

(b) AMOUNT AND DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL LANDS.

According to the first report of the Arizona land commission in 1914, the 8,103,680 acres included in sections 2, 16, 32, and 36 which have been devoted to the public schools, are divided as follows:

	Acres.
In national forests -----	1,397,357.59
In Indian reservations -----	1,746,860.01
In other reservations -----	76,164.11
Unsurveyed and unreserved -----	3,134,555.20
Appropriated by United States entry, subject to indemnity -----	168,707.62
In place, not leased -----	1,184,985.52
In place, under lease or permit -----	395,049.95
Total -----	<u>8,103,680.00</u>

When the 1,580,035.46 acres in place and leased or not-leased are classified from the standpoint of agricultural, woodland, or grazing usefulness, it was found that there were 303,333.62 acres susceptible of some form of agricultural development; 143,189.48 acres had woodland value; and 1,549,980.02 acres had grazing value. It was estimated that these 1,580,035.46 acres were worth \$6,266,505.79 and the improvements upon them (structures, windmills, tanks, ditches, and canals, clearing and leveling, fencing, perennial crops, and water rights) were worth an additional \$848,976.47, making a total of \$7,115,482.26. Prior to statehood there were 264,993.34 acres of school lands leased under 806 leases, and at the rates then charged these leases brought \$16,397.39 per year. With statehood the rental values were revived and standardized at prices ranging from \$20 per section up for grazing lands. For the three years beginning March 16, 1912, and ending with March 15, 1915, the earnings were: 1912-13, \$22,465.36; 1913-14, \$32,148.48; 1914-15, \$31,792.66; 1915-16, \$35,852.14; 1916 (Jan. 1-July 1), \$40,349.12. For the whole period between February 14, 1912, and March 15, 1915, the total earnings were \$88,367.17, of which there had been paid in \$43,547.51, and there was then due \$44,819.66.

Receipts derived from the lease of school lands in earlier years were:

1899 (6 months ending June 30)-----	\$897.73
1899-1900-----	3,936.04
1900-1901-----	4,121.71
1901-2-----	3,576.66
1902 (6 months, July to December)-----	1,726.27

The land commission also gives the cash receipts and the earnings not received from the school lands under the Salt River project for the year ending March 15, 1915, as \$13,241.10, of which \$1,422.39 had been received and \$11,818.71 had not. In the same way and for the same time the lands under the Tempe canal had earned \$1,999.97, of which \$594 had been received and \$1,405.97 was still due.

(c) NATIONAL FOREST LANDS.

As already pointed out, of the public school lands as much as 1,397,357.59 acres lie within the boundaries of the national forests. Under the enabling act the title to these lands is not vested in the State, but they are administered as a part of the national forest to which they belong, and such part of the gross income of the forest is paid the State for the common-school fund as the school land included within the forest bears to the whole of the forest. It is estimated that the part of the national forests belonging to the State makes up about one-ninth of the whole national forest area in the State and that Federal administration is more successful than it could be in State hands.

At the time of the admission of Arizona there were 1,126 leases of surveyed and unsurveyed State school lands in the national forests, covering 456,073.94 acres, at a rental of \$20,048.74. Of these leases there were canceled 320, covering 191,080.60 acres, and leaving 806 leases covering 264,993.34 acres.

The leases have been paying in the last few years as follows (for schools only):¹

From June 20 to June 30, 1910-----	\$440.50
From July 1, 1910, to June 30, 1911-----	16,285.68
From July 1, 1911, to June 30, 1912-----	27,737.71
From July 1, 1912, to June 30, 1913-----	36,226.65
1913 (estimated)-----	40,000.00

This is not all the income to the State from this source, for, as a matter of fact, the State and the counties receive in all about 46 per cent of the total gross receipts from the national forests within the State. The expenses of administration are paid by the Federal Government. The gross revenue is divided as follows: 25 per cent is

¹ Figures from Report of Land Commission, 1912-1914, p. 63.

paid to the counties, in proportion to the forest area in each for the joint benefit of the common schools and roads; 10 per cent is expended on the roads within the forests under direction of the Secretary of Agriculture, and about 11 per cent is paid to the State as the proportion to which the school fund is entitled under the terms of the enabling act.

The total undivided forest, school, and road fund in the last five years has been:¹

1911-12-----	\$55,385.62
1912-13-----	151,039.75
1913-14 ² -----	74,659.49
1914-15-----	63,398.34
1915-16-----	59,807.89

(d) SCHOOL LANDS ON INDIAN RESERVATIONS.

Of the public-school lands included in sections 2, 16, 32, and 36, the sum of 1,746,860.01 acres is included in Indian reservations. About 24 per cent of the acreage of the whole State is bound up in Indian reservations, and of this amount almost exactly one-tenth would of right belong to the schools. The school lands thus included in the reservations make up about 21.5 per cent of the total school possessions. The largest of these tracts is the 903,837.51 acres within the Navajo Reservation, and the smallest the 560 acres within the Mojave Reservation. The San Carlos Apaches cover 177,920 acres and the White Mountain Apaches (Fort Apache) almost an identical amount. The revised statutes of the United States provide that when such school lands fall within the limits of Indian reservations the State may either select other lands of equal value or it may await the extinction of the Indian title. A preliminary survey of these lands made by the land commission of the State brought the conclusion that with certain exceptions the school lands within the reservations should be relinquished and indemnity lands taken in their place, for they are practically all desert. This was regarded as especially true of the Navajo and Moqui lands, which contain 1,177,945.09 acres, and which, after careful investigation, were considered as practically worthless. With reference to the two Apache reservations, making up a total of 355,679.25 acres, and the Kaibab and Colorado River reservations containing 41,267.65 acres, it was thought best for the State to await the extinguishment of the Indian title, for the Colorado River lands are susceptible of irrigation either by pumping or diversion, while portions of the Apache lands are well watered and susceptible of extensive development.

¹ See Reports State Treasurer for 1911-12 to 1915-16.

² See Report of Land Commission, 1912-1914, p. 63.

Of the remaining school lands, 168,707.62 acres are appropriated by United States entry, and so subject to indemnity; 76,164.11 acres are reported as in other reservations, and 3,134,555.20 acres as unsurveyed and unreserved, but the land commission is of the opinion that these lands when available will average quite as high in value as those now in place. The total withdrawal for survey up to January 1, 1917, amounted to 4,346,145 acres.

Although the public schools possess some very valuable tracts of land, like the 25,000 acres under the Salt River and Yuma Government projects and many other tracts which fall within well-settled and well-developed districts, it will be found on comparing these lands with the institutional lands, that their average value is in general low. This is because large sections fall in the mountains and in localities that possess no advantages or possibilities except for grazing, while some tracts are occasionally totally barren.

II. THE INSTITUTIONAL LANDS.

It is now possible to turn from the public-school lands to the institutional lands. The amount of these lands, and the definite purpose to which each allotment has been assigned, has been considered already.¹

It remains only to review briefly the progress made in selecting these lands from the public domain. The lands granted the State for institutions by the enabling act amounted to 2,350,000 acres, and by the terms of the act they were to be selected by a commission composed of the governor, the surveyor general, or some other person acting with the authority of that officer, and the attorney general. To meet the requirements of the law the chairman of the State land commission has performed the duties of the surveyor general. Up to December 1, 1914, the date of his first report, formal selection had been made of 636,661.16 acres, of which patents for 289,358.12 acres had been issued, while an additional amount of 3,993,235 acres had been withdrawn from settlement for survey and selection, so that in all the commission has initiated the State's claim on a total of 4,629,896.16 acres. With the selection of these institutional lands goes also the selection of indemnity public-school lands, "to reimburse the common-school grant for such portions of the place lands granted for that purpose as have been or may hereafter be alienated by settlers prior to the survey of the land or prior to the rights of the State accruing." On December 1, 1914, there had been thus alienated 168,707.62 acres, "and this amount, as the public land surveys go forward, will increase."

In selecting these institutional lands and withdrawing them from survey the principle has been followed that they should have either a

¹ Ch. 8, p. 88.

present or a prospective agricultural value. This has been done on the theory that (1) the lands susceptible of cultivation or of reclamation by any method will ultimately be the most valuable, and (2) that the reservation of lands "at present fit only for grazing, but possessing the elements of a much higher degree of economic usefulness, spells the highest type of true conservation and the insurance of steady and sane development." In accord with these ideas, out of the 636,661.16 acres selected and patents to which have been asked, it is estimated that 618,891.89 acres "are susceptible of some form of agricultural development," that 578,193.16 acres have a grazing value, and that 8,744.61 acres have a woodland value. The lands selected lie mostly in Cochise, Graham, Maricopa, Pima, Pinal, Yavapai, and Yuma Counties, and out of the 2,350,000 acres given, there are yet to be selected 1,713,339.65 acres.¹ None have been located in Gila, Greenlee, or Santa Cruz Counties.

Of all the institutions thus favored with public lands, the miners' hospital and the military institutions have alone to date located practically all their lands.

Under the congressional act of February 18, 1881, 72 sections of land were given to the Territory "for the use and support of a university." In 1882 Hon. Moses Hazeltine Sherman, then Territorial superintendent of public instruction, filed on 45,678.68 acres of land in Coconino County and now embraced in the Coconino and Tusayan National Forests. Of these lands 36,890.14 acres were approved in 1890. In 1904 a further grant of 320 acres for a desert laboratory was selected near Tucson. The university therefore has 37,210.14 acres, and there is a balance of 8,869.86 acres still to be selected. The land already patented embraces 58½ sections; some 3,596.24 acres are suitable in some measure for agricultural purposes; the entire area is most excellent for grazing but "by far the greatest value of the land lies in its magnificent stand of western yellow pine," estimated on February 1, 1913, as amounting to 300,000,000 feet of merchantable lumber for the entire area. The university lands, as well as school and institutional lands, are administered by the land commission.

The land commission gives in its first report (p. 165) the total amount of receipts from State lands for schools, February 14, 1912, to November 30, 1915, as school lands, \$131,633.85; university lands, \$61,740.66.

The land commission discusses also the necessity of a flexible land policy. It advocates—

a policy of land efficiency, elimination of energy and money waste, clear understanding and hearty cooperation between Government and citizen. The

¹ The total number of acres granted on this account up to Jan. 1, 1917, was 707,357.16. The amount "awaiting approval" by the Land Office was 1,308,505.20 acres, and there then remained to be selected a total of 334,137.64 acres.

plan includes classification, demonstration, and in necessary cases reclamation, directly by the State or by cooperation with private individuals or with the Federal Government. Classification should be scientific and thorough. * * * Demonstration would prove an invaluable chart for prospective purchasers. * * * Reclamation is essential if the highest efficiency of some hundreds of thousands of Arizona's so-called desert acres is to be realized, and if the cry for population is to be adequately answered.

The first land commission report urges also "the necessity existing for the establishment, by law, of separate funds corresponding to the different purposes for which lands, granted or confirmed by the enabling act, are being administered by the commission."¹

III. THE LAND LAW OF 1915.

The State land commission of Arizona created by act of May 20, 1912 (ch. 93), was by that act given a lease of life extending to the end of the legislative session of 1915. It therefore became necessary to reestablish the commission by a new act. This was done by chapter 5, second special session, approved on June 26, 1915.² This act provided for a State land department and created the office of commissioner of State lands to carry out the provision of the act. The State land department is composed of a body of five, made up of the governor, secretary of state, attorney general, State treasurer, and State auditor. They were to appoint the State land commissioner and were to sell or lease lands. The commissioner was in charge of all State lands except such as are under the specific use and control of State institutions. He and his assistants were required to give bond and make a semiannual report. The governor, the land commissioner, and the attorney general were constituted a board to make selections of lands and perform other duties pertaining to securing titles. This board reproduces the old board created by the act of 1912 and to whom the executive work of the State land commission was then intrusted. Lands were to be classified as agricultural, grazing, timber, etc. They were to be appraised, and owners were entitled to reimbursement for improvements. Lands might be leased for not more than five years; not more than 160 acres of agricultural land or 640 acres grazing land to one person, association, or corporation. Grazing lands were to be leased for not less than 3 cents per acre and agricultural lands for not less than 2½ per cent of their estimated value. Leases reserved to the State oil, gas, coal,

¹ This discussion of the public lands in Arizona granted by the Federal Government for the use of schools is based on the report of the State land commission of Arizona for the period between June 6, 1912 (the date of its organization under the law of May 20, 1912), and Dec. 1, 1914. This report contains a detailed discussion and review of the whole subject as relating to Arizona and presents both an interesting and valuable study of the subject. The first three biennial reports for July 1, 1915, to Dec. 31, 1916, have been consulted also.

² See acts, second special session, 1915, pp. 13-57.

ore, minerals, fertilizers, and fossils. Lessees who did not renew leases might remove their improvements or sell them to the new lessee or purchaser.

State lands in general are subject to appraisalment and sale. Those containing minerals or oil or adjacent to such lands in private lands are withheld from sale. The commissioner might sell without application, but total yearly sales were limited to 200,000 acres, and this amount was not to include more than 320 acres of lands susceptible of immediate cultivation, except irrigable lands. The minimum price of such lands was \$3 per acre and of lands in irrigation projects not less than \$25 per acre. The terms of sale were 1 per cent of purchase price when the successful bidder was announced; 4 per cent on delivery of certificate of sale; the remainder in 38 annual payments with interest at 5 per cent. The purchaser might discharge the whole debt at any time by paying interest in advance for six months. If the purchaser failed to pay principal and interest when due, the certificate of purchase was to be forfeited.

In accord with the directions of the constitution the act of 1915 created 15 special funds to receive the moneys accruing from the sale of the public lands. These funds are as follows: (*a*) Permanent school fund; (*b*) university land fund; (*c*) legislative, executive, and judicial buildings fund; (*d*) penitentiary land fund; (*e*) asylum for the insane land fund; (*f*) schools and asylums for the deaf, dumb, and blind land fund; (*g*) miners' hospital for disabled miners' land fund; (*h*) normal school land fund; (*i*) State charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions land fund; (*j*) agricultural and mechanical college land fund; (*k*) school of mines land fund; (*l*) military institutes land fund; (*m*) county bonds land fund; (*n*) State land administrative land fund; (*o*) State land classification and appraisalment fund. Of these funds perhaps all except those numbered *c*, *d*, *e*, and *g* bore either directly or indirectly on the subject of public education.

The State treasurer was directed to invest the money belonging to any of these permanent funds in United States bonds, Arizona bonds, or in bonds of the counties, municipalities, and school districts of the State, or in first mortgages on farm lands.

It will be noted that the new law increases the power of the land department. It is now authorized to lease mineral lands; to conduct investigations and experiments to determine which lands are suitable for agriculture, which may be made so by the development of water, and which are suitable for grazing purposes only. It also has power to make and file water locations and appropriations, reservoir, dam, and power sites; to control and dispose of stone and gravel and

other land products. The receipts of the land commission are now assigned to the proper fund to which they belong, and which were created by the act of 1915. The permanent school fund received:¹

July 1 to Dec. 31, 1915-----	\$36,805.73
Jan. 1 to June 30, 1916-----	53,542.39
July 1 to Dec. 31, 1916-----	137,741.67

The institutions land funds were:¹

Jan. 1 to June 30, 1916-----	\$6,124.65
July 1 to Dec. 31, 1916-----	18,961.35

After the selection and patenting of the school and institutional lands, the most important duties of the land department are those connected with the appraising, leasing, and selling of these lands to settlers. The demand is steadily increasing. In the first half year of administration under the present law, the period from July 1 to December 31, 1915, the total applications for all counties were 604, covering 249,350.01 acres. The total number of applications for these lands from the date of statehood, February 14, 1912, to December 31, 1916, was 15,939, of which 8,592 applications or more than half were received in the six months between July 1 and December 31, 1916. During this same six months' period a total of 648,500 acres were selected by the State, and there were still to be selected by the terms of the enabling act a balance of 200,000 acres of institutional lands.

¹See State treasurer's reports.

Chapter X.

THE PAST, THE PRESENT, AND THE FUTURE.

When a general view of the history and growth of the public school movement in Arizona is undertaken, it is easily possible to comprehend the steady, if uneven, development in the course of the same. In the first place the Territory did not receive its preliminary organization until the days of the Civil War, and was therefore the heir of all that had been said or done or thought on the subject of education in the older States. In the next place the first American settlers came from States in which the public system was already more or less developed, and in seeking for a basis of action in their new surroundings they naturally turned to the experience they had had in their earlier homes; and finally their proposed new organization was to meet no insuperable obstacle in its path, for the Indians, averse to all civilization, had to be subdued first of all by force of arms, and the Mexicans, although reared under the theory of church schools only, and in general favorable to that view so far as they had any intelligent opinions, only for a brief interval presented any serious obstacle to the development of public education. Lastly, the Territory was practically wanting in schools of any sort, so that there was little or no resistance from other interests. There were no private or Protestant church schools. Such Catholic schools as existed were devoted largely to the education of Mexican and Indian children, and were separated to a certain extent from the field to which public-school workers were mainly devoting themselves. It is therefore substantially true to say that the first advocates of the public school found a field without previous claimants, clear of obstacles, fallow for cultivation, and with the greater part of the more intelligent population in direct sympathy with its purpose.

This was the situation during the earlier years of the Territory. Fortunately, the men in charge of the organization knew their duties and met its requirements like men. The Howell code, drawn up before the meeting of the first legislature, provided for the organization of a school system which was unquestioningly accepted as its rule of action at the first meeting of the representatives of the people.

As soon as practicable the legislature turned to the subject of school legislation. As early as 1867 they passed their first school law. This was amended, improved, and reenacted in 1868. It provided for a system of schools based on the idea that local taxation

should alone be responsible for the support of the teaching force. This idea was an error. The population was weak and scattered; the local wealth was small; the property holders were not accustomed to taxes for local school purposes; and as the Territory as such did nothing, the laws of 1867 and 1868 accomplished little; not more than one or two schools were organized, and these did little or nothing in serving as centers from which the light of education might penetrate primeval darkness. The law of 1868 recognized, however, the necessity of local supervision, also a certain necessary uniformity in the textbooks and the certification of teachers, but this law likewise failed to accomplish its purpose; schools remained a purely local matter, and the subject of education slept till the coming of a new governor.

The new governor appeared in 1869. He was Anson P. K. Safford, and from California came this new Moses, destined to lead Arizona from darkness to educational light. To him it was given to win for himself the title of Father of the Public Schools. Well does he deserve the title. He found them a pleasing theory; he left them a thriving reality. Since his day the question of their final triumph over all obstacles has not been an article of faith but one of fact, demonstrated by tangible evidence. It is a long story, this long, stern fight against the indifference of ignorance and the opposition of a small body of men who sought to weaken school progress by dividing school funds.

In 1871 a new school bill, based on the California school law, was introduced and passed and has been the basis of practically all school legislation since that time. But the school act of 1871 was not obtained without effort. The earlier school laws had failed to accomplish their purpose, while the Apaches had been far too successful in their efforts to destroy the settlements. They had waged almost ceaseless warfare since the organization of the Territory. Many citizens had been slain, many ranches and settlements broken up. The legislators were more or less demoralized, and to the governor's urging that the bill be passed they asked "What's the use?" But the governor was insistent; he called to his aid Estevan Ochoa, the leading Mexican in the Territory, and to the objection that the Apaches were overrunning the country pointed out that they would in time be subdued and without schools the settlers would themselves soon be as unfit for self-government as the Apaches.

The bill did not become a law till the last day of the session, and then with most of the revenue stricken out. But the new law had features which redeemed it from the weakness of the earlier acts and made it a basis of future activity. It provided for a Territorial superintendent of schools, but as money was scarce and the enthusiasm of the governor great, the duties of the new office were

attached to that of the governor without extra pay further than an allowance for traveling expenses. It thus provided for Territorial supervision, levied a compulsory Territorial tax of 10 cents on the hundred for school purposes, and also ordered a county tax of 50 cents on the hundred. In these taxes the legislature recognized the public-school system as one of the necessary parts of a modern State and provided for its support in the same manner and by the same methods as other State activities. Then and there the question of public support for public schools was settled for all time. Only once in the history of the Territory was this theory challenged and then in vain.

From the time that the bill of 1871 became a law Gov. Safford was its most persistent advocate. Up and down the length and breadth of the Territory, into every county, in the most out-of-the-way places he went, seeking to arouse and encourage the scattered settlements to provide for and organize schools. Advice, direction, suggestion, help, correction, enthusiasm, and courage were poured out like water in a thirsty land; everywhere and always did this devoted missionary preach the new gospel. Not only did he visit the older and more secure sections but also the new settlements where the blood of Apache victims was still fresh on the ground. Up and down through this sun-kissed land, across swollen streams or up their dry beds, over sandy deserts, through naked and forbidding mountains, risking encounters with wild animals and wilder men, passed this modern representative of the spirit of the age, this apostle of modern democracy, preaching always in season and out of season the new doctrine of educational salvation. Always abounding in the work which he had set himself to do, Gov. Safford won over suspicion and overcame opposition. He brought a principal to Prescott from Vermont; he brought teachers to Tucson from California. He came, he saw, he conquered. Only once did the opposition seriously threaten his plans; this was in 1875 when it was proposed to give to religious organizations their share of the public funds for parochial schools. But the sober sense of the people asserted itself; the proposed plan was rejected, and the public schools went on secure in their new freedom.

The result of the enthusiastic work of the governor was that the public schools began to take a firm hold on public consciousness. They took deep root in the soil of public confidence which he had so carefully prepared. They grew and developed. They prospered and increased year by year. The years 1874-75 and 1875-76 seem to represent the high-water mark for the period of Gov. Safford's activities. In 1876-77 a decline set in, for in April of the latter year he resigned the governorship because of impaired health.

The unfavorable reaction of that year is clearly shown in the available statistics, but the schools had made a good start, the momentum already attained soon carried them over this handicap and there was a substantial increase in 1877-78 in the total enrollment, average attendance, and total income, and this last item permitted an increase in expenditures. The number of teachers increased, but there was a shortening of the school term, and owing to a general fall of prices a decrease in teachers' wages. It may be said therefore that the withdrawal of Gov. Safford from school leadership did not have the permanent effects that might have been expected. He had builded so well that his removal caused only a temporary reaction, and it awoke the legislature to the desirability of putting the schools under a separate officer. This was done by the act of February 14, 1879, but no salary was attached to the office other than the \$500 per annum formerly allowed the governor for expenses.

Gov. Frémont commissioned Moses H. Sherman, then principal of the Prescott schools, to take over the schools of the whole Territory in addition to his other school duties as superintendent at Prescott. It does not appear, however, that Sherman did much more than attend to the clerical duties of the office. The organization of the schools, the evolution of a course of study, the perfecting and settling on a series of textbooks to be used throughout the Territory, the codification and coordination of the school laws, the revising and defining the duties of county school officers, the organization of county institutes, the readjustment of county and Territorial school taxes, the proper apportionment of school funds, the recognition and granting of diplomas, the certification of teachers, were all matters which were left in the main by Supt. Sherman to his official successors. To Supts. Horton and Long is due the chief credit of taking the disjointed, disconnected, unorganized, and never articulated elements of a Territorial system and uniting them into a single whole. This work was largely accomplished in the administrations running from 1883 to 1887.

But while the decade of the eighties saw the first organization of the schools into a Territorial system started on its way, the same decade and the next witnessed the bitter factional fights that were growing out of the general educational situation of Territorial affairs. The Territory was naturally Democratic in politics. The Federal Government, on the other hand, was for the greater part of the time Republican, and its appointees, the Territorial governor and superintendent, were of the same political faith. There was therefore constant friction between the people and the administration. This resulted in serious limitations on the superintendent's authority; he was reduced to the position of a clerk; once they refused to confirm a superintendent because refusal to confirm made it pos-

sible for his successor to be a member of the administration majority; in another case the salary of the regularly appointed superintendent was cut more than in half by the legislature to force him to resign; while in other cases men were forced out of positions in the normal school simply because they were not members of the right political group, and these are only the worst phases of a struggle which was kept up for more than a decade, which penetrated to the very extremities of the system and affected seriously the work of the period. The greatest harm was done between 1887 and 1899. Before that date this spirit had manifested itself but little; after that time the people came to realize the harm that was coming to themselves from this unhappy mixture of politics and education, and a working basis of forbearance was attained, and the schools entered on a period of more harmonious development.

The close of the century marks also a realization of the necessity for fewer administrative changes, more uniformity in development, and greater continuity of ideals. Since the beginning of this century, and especially since the attainment of statehood, the system has been more and more in the way of realizing this desirable situation. Superintendents have therefore been better able to evolve their plans and carry them into execution, the schools have been less handicapped by failure to follow out plans when once undertaken. Since admission to statehood and the recognition of the school superintendency as an elective office, the conflict between political parties which appeared often in Territorial days has disappeared.

The question of school funds has always been less of a problem in Arizona than in most States. The schools have usually been able to command all the funds needed for their normal development. In the past it has even been found necessary to reduce taxes to prevent an accumulation of more funds than could be used, but other problems, that of distance, for instance, is ever present and will be for very many years to come, for there are still many stretches of wild waste separating one community from another, and many small mining camps and isolated ranches must suffer for the lack of opportunities for education that does not apply to the larger centers. It is the old trouble which has always been a bugbear to scattered communities in thinly settled States. Arizona is liberal in her provisions for the small community, recognizing it if there are as many as eight pupils, but there are still localities with a few pupils only, who do not as yet receive the fostering care of the State.

Since the State has come into the administration of her public-school lands this great estate is being taken over as fast as it can be selected and surveyed. The State is making wise provisions for its sale, fixing minimum prices for the same, and the sales seem to be conducted with a minimum of irregularity. The income from this

source is increasing from year to year and bids fair in the future to become in itself so important that it will go far toward maintaining the school system.

The trend of progress may be shown by statistics from 1880 to date, which in the case of this State cover practically the whole field of its history.

Comparative table of illiteracy.

Years.	Illiterates 10 years of age and over.								Illiterates 10 to 20 years of age.	
	Native white.		Foreign white.		Negro.		All classes.		Num-ber.	Per cent.
	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.		
1880.....	1,225	8.1	3,599	26.8	¹ 1,018	23.7	5,842	17.7	1,659	24.7
1890.....	2,056	7.9	6,900	42.2	245	19.2	10,785	19.5	² 2,621	24.1
1900.....	3,096	6.2	7,552	35.3	211	12.7	27,307	29.0	6,243	22.9
1910.....	3,776	4.2	13,758	31.5	122	7.2	32,953	20.9	7,146	18.0

¹ "Colored persons"; no mention of Chinese or others.

² Estimated.

These tables when interpreted mean that there was an absolute increase in the number of illiterates in the State at each census from 1880 to 1910, inclusive; that this increase was nearly 13 per cent when measured in per cents, and in actual numbers was 21,465 greater in 1900 than in 1890; that only in the decade beginning with 1900 did the Territory recover its equilibrium, for in 1910 the total illiteracy had been reduced by 8.1 per cent, but the per cent is still greater than in 1880 and the State yet has a great work before it.

That while the number of white illiterates is now three times as great as in 1880, in percentage it is a little less than one-half as great; that while the number of illiterate foreigners was greater in 1910 than in 1880 by 10,259, in per cents it is less than 5 per cent greater than in 1880 and is 11 per cent less than 1890; that Negro illiterates have decreased steadily both in number and per cents; that while the number of illiterates between 10 and 20 years of age has increased from 1,659 to 7,146, the per cent has decreased from 24.7 to 18 per cent.

While these figures taken by themselves would seem to indicate that in some respects the State is doing little more than holding its own, it will be noticed that when 1900 and 1910 are compared the progress of the last decade becomes clearly visible, and most of the best work of the State has even been done since the last census was taken. The progress of the young State, as compared with the Territorial period, may be briefly summarized as follows:

With the better articulation that has obtained in recent years the educational institutions have developed rapidly, and the normal schools and university are now in a fair way to supply the State

demand for teachers, although at present the laws in force discourage the young teacher from beginning work in his home State. Educational journalism is behind, due undoubtedly to lack of support, this coming in turn from lack of teachers and the scarcity of persons interested in educational problems. The State has not yet grown beyond the stage of physical necessities on the one hand and the mere accumulation of wealth on the other, but the basis of the centralization and expression of school thought has been laid in the teachers' county institutes and the Teachers' State Association. With all the money needed, the State still awaits the increase in personnel which is as necessary as material. Indeed, one of the troubles in Arizona has always been that the pupils increased faster than the accommodations. For this reason it was oftentimes impossible to enforce the compulsory attendance laws. Schoolhouses, although built by bond issues more often than by taxes, at this period were often inadequate.

In recent years commendable progress has been made toward centralization. The examination of teachers is in the hands of the State superintendent. He mails the questions for the formal teachers' examinations to the county superintendents, who acting in the capacity of educational clerks set the examination. The papers are then read and graded in the superintendent's office and to each teacher is guaranteed equality of treatment and of marking. The offices of county judge of probate and county superintendent have been entirely separated by law, and salaries assigned in proportion to services rendered.

The State board of education is the authority in the organization and administration of educational affairs. The State superintendent takes his orders from this board and is its executive officer.

The enrollment and attendance in Arizona have always been relatively high, and in the last 20 years the enrollment has never been less than 71 per cent (1913-14) of the school population and has been as high as 86 per cent (1910-11). During the same period the per cent of those enrolled in average attendance has risen from 59 (1898-99) to 78.5 per cent in 1915-16, and the per cent of school population in average attendance has gone from 41.6 per cent in 1901-2 to 56.1 per cent in 1915-16.¹ It is to be noted also that this attendance is on a basis of the total school population between 6 and 21 years of age and makes no allowance for pupils in private schools. This increase in attendance is not at any uniform rate, but when one period is compared with another it becomes very marked.

¹The Bureau of Education figures out that the average daily attendance of all pupils between 5 and 18 years was in 1913-14 as much as 74.2 per cent for the whole United States. On the same basis Arizona was given an attendance of 67.5 per cent. When the three years above 18 are included, the attendance average would naturally be lower.

The standardization of schools is being advanced and schoolhouses are being erected, larger and better than those of earlier decades and well suited to the needs of the day. Industrial and vocational education is recognized and provided for in special institutions, in the university, the normal schools, and also in the high schools. The State, after a long preliminary period in which uniformity of textbooks was provided by law but not always enforced in practice, has come to realize the desirability of providing all books at State expense, and a pension system is being tried. Many of these lines of endeavor are still in the trial period, but they indicate the trend of the times.

As yet there has not been attained in Arizona the centralization needed to place on the State department of education the responsibility for providing equal opportunities. As recently pointed out by the survey of the United States Bureau of Education the board itself should be reorganized and its power increased; all politics should be eliminated in both county and State affairs; the powers of the county board should be increased also with a reorganization of the methods of apportionment and an extension of expert supervision of rural schools.

When these and similar measures have been carried out there will not be lacking the centralized administration necessary to attain State-wide progress "without unnecessary delay and expense."

PUBLIC SCHOOL STATISTICS—1870-1916.

TABLE 1.—*School population, teachers, property, and school year.*

Years.	School population. ¹	Teachers.	Schools. ²	Monthly salary.	Days in school year.	Value school property.
1870.....	1,923					
1872-73.....	1,660					
1873-74.....	2,584	11	11	\$100.00	180	
1874-75.....	2,508	14	14	100.00	180	
1875-76.....	2,955	21	21	110.00		
1876-77.....		31	28	100.00	190	\$44,436
1877-78.....	3,089	37	28	91.00	124	47,479
1878-79.....	5,291	51	51	74.00	165	78,681
1879-80.....	7,148	101	101	83.00	109	113,074
1880-81.....	9,571	102	148	84.00		121,318
1881-82.....	10,283	126	98			116,751
1882-83.....	9,376	98	104	75.00	120	82,183
1883-84.....	9,376	143	121	85.00	140	153,466
1884-85 ⁴	10,219	131	137	86.00	120	212,385
1885-86 ⁴	10,219	150	150	78.00	140	201,984
1886-87 ⁴	10,303	175	169	81.00	143	176,238
1887-88 ⁴	10,303	191	184	80.00	124	222,219
1888-89 ⁴	12,588	199	197	79.00	135	222,958
1889-90 ⁴	12,976	240	219	77.00	126	268,435
1890-91.....	13,874		237		127	297,444
1891-92.....	14,710		251		124	320,609

¹ Until 1883 the school age was 6 to 21; 1884 to April, 1901, 6 to 18; since 1901, 6 to 21.

² During the earlier years these are referred to as "school rooms," "in 1881-82, as districts." They were one-teacher schools.

³ Through 1880-81 these figures are for men. The salaries of women were as follows: 1873-74, \$100; 1874-75, \$100; 1875-76, \$90; 1876-77, \$50; 1877-78, \$74; 1878-79, \$68; 1879-80, \$70; 1880-81, \$68. The figures given beginning with 1882-83 are the average of all salaries.

⁴ From report for 1889-90; these figures do not always agree with those in other reports. They are probably in most cases only approximate.

TABLE 1.—School population, teachers, property, and school year—Continued.

Years.	School population.	Teachers.	Schools.	Monthly salary.	Days in school year.	Value school property.
1892-93.....	15,463	269	265	\$78.18	130	\$344,646
1893-94.....	16,403	293	289	75.30	124	405,446
1894-95.....	15,909	321	261	70.41	120	414,447
1895-96.....	16,936	324	293	68.54	126	428,935
1896-97.....	17,427	350	337	65.41	128	445,379
1897-98.....	18,802	435	347	67.50	130	472,107
1898-99.....	19,523	373	375	67.77	127	490,504
1899-1900.....	20,833	399	398	67.09	125	529,024
1900-1901.....	23,435	445	428	68.47	128	612,929
1901-2.....	25,259	457	442	75.30	125	654,942
1902-3.....	25,951	482	467	71.00	125	783,735
1903-4.....	27,324	519	498	72.00	130	882,790
1904-5.....	29,290	536	523	72.21	125	970,902
1905-6.....	30,230	554	542	74.55	125	1,041,888
1906-7.....	33,169	626	596	74.91	128.4	1,158,335
1907-8.....	34,299	645	633	79.19	135	1,409,788
1908-9.....	34,299					
1909-10.....	36,729					
1910-11.....	38,611	876	765	84.70		
1911-12.....	42,381	895	814	86.58		1,845,021
1912-13.....	46,681	1,020	865	86.98		2,102,419
1913-14.....	53,845	1,096	1,020	89.56		
1914-15.....	56,471	1,219	1,082	91.61		
1915-16.....	61,073	1,364	1,138	91.76		

TABLE 2.—Enrollment and attendance.

Years.	Total school enrollment.	Per cent of school population enrolled.	Average school attendance.	Per cent of enrollment in average attendance.	Per cent of school population in average attendance.
1872-73.....	333	20.0			
1873-74.....	343	13.2			
1874-75.....	568	22.3	419	73.8	16.7
1875-76.....	1,213	41.0	900	74.2	30.4
1876-77.....	908		580		
1877-78.....	2,740	88.7	890	32.5	28.8
1878-79.....	3,143	59.3	1,102	35.1	20.8
1879-80.....	4,212	58.9	2,847	67.6	39.8
1880-81.....	3,844	40.2			
1882-83.....	3,751	40.0	2,554	68.0	27.2
1883-84.....	4,516	48.1	3,287	72.8	35.0
1884-85.....	4,974	48.6	3,226	64.9	31.5
1885-86.....	6,076	59.6	3,507	57.7	34.3
1886-87.....			3,602		34.9
1887-88.....			3,849		37.3
1888-89.....	7,286	58.6	4,293	58.9	34.1
1889-90.....	7,989	61.5	4,702	58.8	37.0
1890-91.....			5,047		36.4
1891-92.....			5,198		35.3
1892-93.....	10,104	65.3	5,340	52.5	34.5
1893-94.....	11,319	63.7	6,791	60.0	41.9
1894-95.....	11,450	71.9	7,034	61.4	44.1
1895-96.....	12,889	76.1	7,641	59.2	45.1
1896-97.....	13,367	76.7	8,983	67.2	51.5
1897-98.....	14,713	78.2	9,011	61.2	47.9
1898-99.....	15,893	80.2	9,396	59.1	47.4
1899-1900.....	16,504	79.2	10,177	61.6	48.8
1900-1901.....	17,817	76.0	10,951	61.4	42.4
1901-2.....	19,203	76.0	11,514	59.9	41.6
1902-3.....	20,008	77.1	12,105	60.4	46.6
1903-4.....	21,366	78.1	13,022	60.9	47.6
1904-5.....	21,792	74.4	14,009	64.3	47.4
1905-6.....	23,223	76.8	14,448	62.2	47.7
1906-7.....	25,360	76.1	15,667	61.8	47.2
1907-8.....	27,023	78.7	16,928	62.6	49.3
1910-11.....	33,029	86.8	21,776	65.9	56.1
1911-12.....	33,310	78.6	22,813	68.5	53.8
1912-13.....	33,336	75.0	25,003	71.4	53.5
1913-14.....	42,036	71.1	29,912	78.1	55.5
1914-15.....	43,316	72.8	31,555	76.6	55.9
1915-16.....	47,945	71.5	34,257	78.5	56.1

TABLE 3.—School revenue and school expenditures.

Years.	Income from State taxes.	County and district taxes.	From other funds, including balances.	Total receipts.	Salaries of teachers and superintendents.	Miscellaneous expenditures.	Total expenditures.	Tax valuation, hundreds omitted.
1872-73.....				\$5,849			\$20,211	
1873-74.....				11,417				
1874-75.....	\$4,690	\$9,232	\$14,837	28,760			24,152	
1875-76.....				31,449	\$11,089	\$17,655	28,744	
1876-77.....				20,708			18,407	
1877-78.....				21,396			21,396	
1878-79.....				32,421			29,200	
1879-80.....				67,028			61,172	
1880-81.....				58,768			44,628	
1881-82.....				101,967			98,268	
1882-83.....	19,007	82,383	(1)	101,390			77,998	\$31,588,000
1883-84.....	27,959	177,942	(1)	205,901	59,878		161,862	30,228,000
1884-85 ²	19,199	87,768	79,699	186,666	78,839		138,165	28,683,000
1885-86 ²	10,662	85,760	18,441	159,956	89,551		135,030	23,207,000
1886-87 ²				120,045			117,005	26,194,000
1887-88 ²				157,707			130,212	25,913,000
1888-89 ²	3,496	145,809	30,477	179,782	105,910	44,634	150,543	27,057,000
1889-90 ²	1,783	170,277	29,239	201,289	123,178	54,306	177,484	28,050,000
1890-91.....				236,743			198,762	28,270,000
1891-92.....				247,202			207,898	27,923,000
1892-93.....				266,069			221,213	28,486,000
1893-94.....				205,611			176,671	27,062,000
1894-95.....	³ 164,099	⁴ 14,266	32,913	211,278	140,573	62,444	203,016	
1895-96.....	³ 190,743	⁴ 11,235	17,138	219,116	152,438	62,013	214,451	28,047,000
1896-97.....	³ 213,152	⁴ 2,436	4,190	219,778	155,991	49,958	205,949	30,693,000
1897-98.....	³ 233,094	⁴ 4,454	16,735	250,279	169,981	54,295	224,186	31,474,000
1898-99.....	10,000	204,167	47,970	295,884	178,114	60,481	241,556	32,510,000
1899-1900.....	11,101	218,580	100,749	421,776	189,189	110,542	345,314	33,782,000
1900-1901.....	11,458	194,285	205,502	411,244	214,266	112,572	336,839	38,854,000
1901-2.....	22,951	209,736	297,962	530,649	224,600	176,636	401,236	39,083,000
1902-3.....	25,761	249,118	226,581	501,460	242,848	172,291	412,741	43,088,000
1903-4.....	32,439	271,051	252,370	555,859	256,714	181,715	438,828	45,070,000
1904-5.....	38,217	278,571	214,787	531,575	401,001	114,826	518,828	57,920,000
1905-6.....	41,006	330,057	208,323	579,385	448,924	163,780	612,703	62,228,000
1906-7.....	43,833	397,979	255,949	697,762	508,207	161,155	669,362	77,372,000
1907-8.....	66,338	491,323	256,402	814,063	603,505	321,421	924,926	80,638,000
1908-9.....	⁵ 61,758							82,684,000
1909-10.....	⁵ 54,687							86,126,000
1910-11.....	⁵ 63,981							98,033,000
1911-12.....	58,308	633,397	1,125,943	1,817,647	⁶ 890,533	431,062	1,321,595	140,388,000
1912-13.....	124,886	797,423	1,419,743	2,342,052	941,563	636,577	1,578,141	375,862,000
1913-14.....	475,529	734,946	1,210,475	3,187,023	1,212,116	1,923,432	2,135,549	407,267,000
1914-15.....	460,852	695,959	2,173,602	3,330,413	1,509,633	1,064,850	2,574,484	420,000,000
1915-16.....	478,572	1,008,441	2,173,871	3,660,883	1,515,376	1,151,501	2,667,077	

¹ Not differentiated.² From report of 1889-90; the figures differ from those in the report of 1885-86.³ No returns from Apache and Coconino Counties.⁴ Includes district taxes only.⁵ These figures from House Journal, special session, 1912, p. 169.⁶ From this date these items are called "school maintenance."

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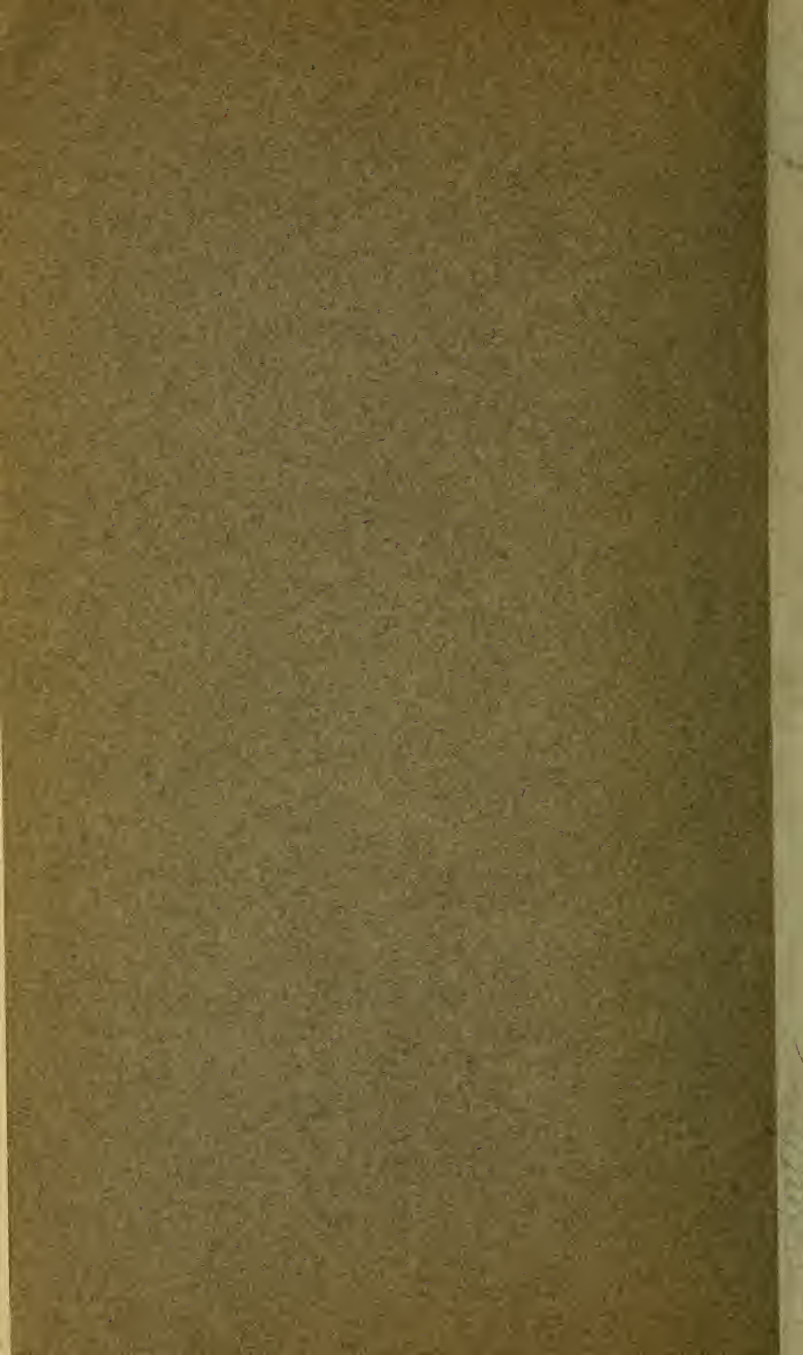
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[Continued from page 2 of cover.]

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- No. 17. History of public school education in Arizona. Stephen B. Weeks.
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- No. 19. Vocational guidance in secondary education. A report of the Commission on Secondary Education.
- No. 20. Monthly record of current educational publications, June, 1918.
- No. 21. Instruction in journalism in institutions of higher education. James M. Lee.
- No. 22. Monthly record of current educational publications—Index, February, 1917—January, 1918.
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- No. 24. Vocational guidance and the public schools. W. Carson, Ryan, jr.



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